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ABSTRACT

This report consists of six individual reports that were done by staff members at the Library Research Center as part of the overall project. In Part I, "Financing Public Library Expansion: Case Studies of Three Defeated Bond Issue Referendums," Ruth G. Lindahl and William S. Berner analyze defeated library bond issue referendums in Champaign, Quincy, and Peoria, Illinois. In Part II, "Suburban Communities and Public Library Service in the Chicago Metropolitan Statistical Area," Ruth G. Lindahl tests the proposition that certain types of suburban communities will have predictably higher levels of public library service than will others. For Part III, "Public Opinion in Illinois Regarding Public Library Support and Use" by Carol Kronus and James W. Grimm, field interviews were conducted with 2,031 respondents representing a probability sample of adult residents of Illinois. In Part IV, William S. Berner examines "Campaign Conduct and the Outcome of Library Bond Referendums." Barbara O. Slanker, in Part V, is concerned with "Administrative Structure of Public Library Systems and Its Relationship to Level of Service Offered by Member Libraries." In Part VI, Ralph Stenstrom presents an analysis of "Factors Associated with Membership and Non-Membership in Library Systems in Illinois." (Author/JB)

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STUDIES IN PUBLIC LIBRARY GOVERNMENT, ORGANIZATION, AND SUPPORT

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September 1969

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The principal investigator and the project staff owe so much to so many people for their contributions to this Final Report that a complete list of acknowledgements is not practical. Since one of the chief objectives of the project was to expose a great many people, inside and outside of public libraries, to some research on public library problems, the very nature of the approach meant that dozens, even hundreds, of individuals would have a part to play.

Although this project formed only one part of the work of the Library Research Center during the period of the contract, staff members other than those directly involved were called on constantly for assistance and advice, as were faculty and staff of the Graduate School of Library Science. Special thanks go to Dr. Terence Crowley, now Director of the Center, and to Dr. Herbert Goldhor, Director of the Graduate School of Library Science, who were called on for supervision and guidance toward the end of the project after the principal investigator left to take a new position as Dean of the Graduate School of Library Science, Drexel Institute of Technology.

By the time of his departure, the six major parts of the Final Report were well underway and could safely be left in the hands of project staff in charge of each part. Completion of the Final Report on time is evidence of the tremendous spirit of cooperation displayed by the project staff in working with a principal investigator who could make only occasional short visits to the Library Research Center during the last phases of the work.

For Part I, the staff is grateful for assistance from many individuals in Champaign, Peoria, and Quincy who discussed their roles in library elections in those cities. They are especially indebted to Mrs. Kathryn Gesterfield, Mr. William Bryan, Mr. Ray Howser, and Mrs. Caroline Sexauer for complete cooperation in providing data on defeated bond issues for their libraries.

For Part II, the staff received help from the Illinois State Library in reviewing published and unpublished library data. The staff of the Survey Research Laboratory and the Digital Computer Laboratory of the University of Illinois were very helpful in preparing data for analysis and devising suitable computer programs.

The public opinion survey described in Part III would not have been possible without the complete cooperation of Dr. Robert Ferber, Director of the Survey Research Laboratory,

and his staff. This study, in particular, met the objective of the overall project for involving non-library people in a study of public library problems. It also involved several graduate students in sociology as Library Research Center research assistants or associates.

Part IV required the help of numerous librarians, trustees, and other individuals involved directly or indirectly in library bond issue referendum campaigns in the Illinois cities studied. The cooperation of municipal authorities in securing voting data is especially appreciated, as is the assistance rendered by Mrs. Irma Bostian of the Illinois State Library in identifying libraries which had had referendum campaigns.

Part V required extensive field work as well as a series of questionnaires to library systems and system members. The staff and directors of the libraries in the nine case study areas were unfailingly helpful in providing data and in making the field work easier. The staff of the Lincoln Trail Libraries System in Illinois participated in pretesting of instruments. The idea for this study grew out of the Nelson Associates study done in 1967-68 for the American Library Association (now published by A.L.A. as Public Library Systems in the United States). We are grateful to Mr. Charles Nelson of Nelson Associates and Miss Eleanor Ferguson of the American Library Association for making data from the study available in advance of publication.

A great debt is owed to librarians and trustees of the Illinois public libraries which participated in the study reported in Part VI. These people were willing to discuss freely some rather sensitive issues relating to system development and were very cooperative and generous with their time during field interviews throughout Illinois. The nine case study libraries are not mentioned by name in the report so that findings can be reported freely.

A special note of thanks goes to Mrs. Marie Long of Raleigh, North Carolina, a former Library Research Center staff member whose good judgment and editorial skills were called on during the final months of the project to edit and impose a consistent format on certain parts of the Final Report.

The nature of the contribution of Mrs. La Verne Caroline, secretary of the Library Research Center, deserves separate mention. Without her help in anticipating difficulties, overseeing clerical work, making travel arrangements, and keeping information flowing between the project staff in Urbana and the principal investigator in Philadelphia, it would have been impossible to complete this report on time.

SUMMARY

The *Final Report* for "Studies in Public Library Government, Organization, and Support" consists of six individual reports that were done by staff members at the Library Research Center, Graduate School of Library Science, University of Illinois, as part of the overall project.

In Part I, *Financing Public Library Expansion: Case Studies of Three Defeated Bond Issue Referendums*, Ruth G. Lindahl and William S. Berner provide detailed background information on defeated library bond issue referendums in Champaign, Quincy, and Peoria, Illinois; describe the typical sequence of events and decisions that precede voter action on such an issue; and make some generalizations about planning and conducting successful campaigns.

In Part II, *Suburban Communities and Public Library Service in the Chicago Metropolitan Statistical Area*, Ruth G. Lindahl tests the proposition that certain types of suburban communities will have predictably higher levels of public library service than will others. The locale of the study is well suited to the technique since there are scores of independent suburban libraries around Chicago and great variations exist in the social and demographic characteristics of the communities that support them. The study is largely statistical, using 159 communities and 42 variables, or which ten are community and 32 library variables.

For Part III, *Public Opinion in Illinois Regarding Public Library Support and Use* by Carol Kronus and James W. Grimm, the facilities of the University of Illinois Survey Research Laboratory were used to conduct field interviews with 2,031 respondents representing a probability sample of adult residents of Illinois. Their answers to interview questions are analyzed in four chapters: 1) Patterns of Library Use and Dissatisfaction in Illinois, 2) Public Opinion on Financing Libraries, 3) Attitudes toward Political and Ideological Issues, and 4) The Public's Image of the Public Librarian.

Part IV, *Campaign Conduct and the Outcome of Library Bond Referendums*, by William S. Berner, examines nine library bond referendums held in Illinois in 1967 and 1968, and attempts to determine what characteristics of the campaigns themselves are associated with success or failure. The seven facets of campaign conduct that are studied are: 1) degree of personal contact with voters, 2) citizen participation,

3) length of campaign, 4) financing the campaign, 5) publicity given to floor plans, 6) slogans developed and used, and 7) opposition encountered and how it was met. The report concludes with a survey of recent literature on library referendum campaigns.

Barbara O. Slanker, in Part V, Administrative Structure of Public Library Systems and Its Relationship to Level of Service Offered by Member Libraries, is concerned with finding out what relationship exists between administrative structure (consolidated, cooperative, and non-systematized) and the services available to member libraries in nine metropolitan areas. She uses Evansville, Charlotte, and Tulsa to represent consolidated systems; Peoria, Syracuse, and Fresno to represent cooperative systems; and Omaha, Wichita, and New Haven to represent areas which lack formal system structure.

In Part VI, Ralph Stenstrom presents an analysis of Factors Associated with Membership and Non-Membership in Library Systems in Illinois. After stratifying Illinois public libraries into groups by size and by time of joining a library system (early-joiners, middle-joiners, and non-joiners), and discussing the general characteristics of libraries in these groups, he selects nine cases for intensive analysis based on field visits and interviews with library staff and board members. Chapters are presented on local vs. non-local orientation of the library, the views of staff and board on library service, and their opinion on systems.

INTRODUCTION

To understand this Final Report and the background from which it comes, one should keep two facts in mind. First is the principal investigator's conviction, based on six year's effort at directing sponsored research at one library school and one year as dean of another, that the most practical way to build up some badly-needed research skills in library education is to encourage the development of specialized research groups in the various library schools and to allow these groups to organize programs of research and develop research skills in areas where they have interest and experience. The second major fact is that most funding agencies, including the U.S. Office of Education, are not much interested in nurturing programs as such, but rather in contracting for research projects piece by piece.

Given these conditions, the project which resulted in this Final Report is about as close as one is able to come currently to program support, since it tied in very closely with the interests and abilities of a small research group already assembled at the Library Research Center, University of Illinois, and had enough flexibility to allow some degree of choice in modifying the projects outlined in the original proposal, thereby permitting the staff to take advantage of opportunities that might not have been foreseen when the proposal was written.

Since 1961 the Graduate School of Library Science at the University of Illinois has sponsored a Library Research Center supported largely by funds from the Illinois State Library and chiefly concerned with research on matters relating to public library development. From the first, this Center was based on the premise that its mission was not only to produce studies and reports desired by sponsoring agencies but, just as importantly, to serve as a training ground in research for those faculty and students, especially doctoral students, who held research appointments in the Center.

A reading of the Annual Reports for the Center from 1962 to date will provide some idea of the problems encountered in sustaining a research program in a library school almost entirely from outside grants and contracts. The continued support of the Illinois State Library, which was, in effect, program support, was the essential ingredient. A degree of success in attracting other project funds in closely related areas of interest--chiefly from state library agencies for studies in public library organization and services--enabled the Center to expand to the point where larger scale projects were possible. The award of the contract from the U.S. Office of Education for this project in June, 1967, was a major development for the Center. With one extension in time from the original date proposed for completion, the work has been carried out on schedule and is presented in this Final Report.

Objectives

This project, as stated above, was designed to extend the activities of the Library Research Center in directions already explored since 1961 in studies relating to public libraries. The proposal document specified four major objectives:

A. To organize and carry out research and experimentation on governmental, organizational, and financial problems of the American public library.

B. To develop working relationships with selected midwestern public libraries which will serve as experimental libraries for certain of these studies.

C. To encourage research attention to the public library by providing an opportunity for exposure to public library problems for faculty and staff.

D. To work toward a coordinated regional library research program involving other midwestern library schools and state library agencies.

The success of the project in meeting the first of these objectives can be judged, in a narrow sense, by the six studies that make up this Final Report. In broader terms, the success in meeting the other objectives is more intangible--that for a period of two years an environment conducive to public library research existed in a library school; that three doctoral students whose interests had not been focussed on any particular type of research were able to find suitable topics relating to public library problems and were supported by appointments on this project; that six library science and three sociology graduate students were employed on the project and introduced to the public library as a subject for study; and that hundreds of librarians, board members, and ordinary library users contributed their opinions to the studies.

Objective A

In meeting Objective A, the related series of studies, a number of modifications in procedure and content were necessary as the project developed. The proposal document, while allowing for some freedom in approach and in research design, did suggest five specific areas of study:

1. Studies of voting behavior on public library bond issue referendums.
2. Studies using socioeconomic and demographic data to investigate the hypothesis that public library support in suburban as well as urban areas is declining in relation to population.
3. A report or state-of-the-art document that would bring together pertinent information on public library standards, goals, purposes, and structure for the convenient use of urban and regional planners.
4. Studies that would identify characteristics of libraries that fail to join public library systems.
5. Studies of the reference function of public libraries, especially studies done with cooperating libraries to identify attitudes toward reference service.

As the project developed and as staff members were selected to be in charge of the various projects, some modifications of the planned studies were made. In particular, two of the original five proposed studies were dropped. Preliminary work on the reference study centered around devising scales for measuring attitudes of reference librarians in large public libraries toward reference service to special sub-groups of users. Unfortunately, the study had to be abandoned before it was well begun when the staff member in charge resigned and no qualified replacement with such interests could be located.

The second study which was dropped dealt with preparation of the document on public libraries for professional planners. There was some hope that a document could be prepared that was suitable for publication in the "Planning Advisory Service" series of the American Society of Planning Officials or in the bibliographical series issued by the Council of Planning Librarians. Delays in reaching full staffing for the project caused this project to be postponed and, ultimately, abandoned.

To compensate for the two parts that were dropped, the area dealing with library referendums was expanded so that two reports resulted, one consisting of three case studies of defeated referendums and the other dealing with factors in referendum campaigns associated with success or failure. The second of these was also designed to serve as the basis for a doctoral dissertation.

One study was added that was not suggested in the original proposal. This was a study of the administrative structure of public library systems. It was developed with the expectation of utilizing some existing data collected for the Nelson Associates study Public Library Systems in the United States (A.L.A., 1969). When examination of the material showed that secondary analysis of these data was not feasible, a plan for collecting original system data was devised. This study also serves as the basis for a doctoral dissertation now in progress.

The other studies listed in the proposal were carried out much as planned. One of these, which appears here as Part VI, also serves as the basis for a doctoral dissertation.

Objective B

The degree of success achieved in carrying out Objective B is substantially less than had been anticipated. During the course of the project, the Center had hoped to develop working relationships with selected public and state libraries in the Midwest and to use them as experimental libraries for some of the studies. The Center had already established close relationships with the Illinois State Library and had also done several projects under joint or individual funding for the Wisconsin, Indiana, and Missouri State Libraries.

Preliminary arrangements had been made with the directors of the St. Louis and Indianapolis Public Libraries to allow field studies in these libraries. For example, the study of reference attitudes that was planned but not executed was to have been done in these libraries.

In actuality, the relationships developed with libraries during the project were both more extensive and less formal. Carrying out the various studies required a great deal of field work and the cooperation of dozens of libraries but did not involve setting up any experimental situations. The idea, however, has merit and our preliminary discussions showed a great deal of interest on the part of libraries in participating in such studies on a more formal basis.

Objective C

The project had a moderate degree of success in fulfilling Objective C, the encouragement of research attention to public library problems. The fact that three doctoral dissertations will ultimately emerge from studies undertaken for the project is one aspect of this. Research attention to public library problems in library schools has suffered from a lack of faculty with public library interests and experience to direct research. The three dissertations which are by-products of this project were all originally under the direction of the principal investigator. After his change of affiliation from Illinois to Drexel before the completion of the project, responsibility for dissertation direction fell to other faculty. Although various difficulties prevented the completion of the dissertations at the same time as the project, all are well on the way to completion.

This objective was also met through use of a number of library school students as research assistants, thereby adding to their library education some practical contact with research and with public libraries. The project also involved as project staff several people whose academic field is sociology. One research associate, a doctoral student in sociology, was part of the project from the beginning and aided greatly in research design and statistics. Another sociologist joined the School on a half teaching and half research basis during the last year of the project and made significant contributions.

Objective D

Another objective for which little direct results can be attributed to this project called for investigating the possibility of a regional library research program for the Midwest. Some progress was made in this direction during the two years of the project but it would be presumptuous for the project to claim credit for it.

For several years prior to the time this project was begun, the Center had been trying to interest some of the state library agencies and library schools in the Midwest in cooperating on library research. Not much had come out of this except discussions at annual meetings of the Midwest State Library Agencies and a few jointly sponsored research studies.

Another promising avenue for regional cooperation, at least among the library schools, already existed in the C.I.C. or Committee on Interinstitutional Cooperation, an organization of eleven Midwestern universities (the Big Ten plus Chicago). In the fall of 1967, representatives of the library schools of these universities began a series of meetings to explore various ways in which they could cooperate. The principal investigator for this project was present at these meetings to make a plea for a high priority for cooperating on research. There has by now been some progress by this C.I.C. Conference Group of Library Schools, as the group is now called, and a few small projects, mostly in the field of library education, have been started.

A great deal more still needs to be done to stimulate research through affiliation on a regional basis between library schools and state agencies in the various regions of the county. Perhaps the time will yet come when this kind of joint undertaking can be realized.

PART I

FINANCING PUBLIC LIBRARY EXPANSION; CASE STUDIES OF THREE DEFEATED BOND ISSUE REFERENDUMS

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and
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CHAPTER I

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

This report on the sequence of events and administrative decisions leading up to voter action on public library bond issues presents a description of the process that each of three Illinois cities went through. In two of the three cities a new library has not been built because the bond issue referendums were defeated by the voters. In the third city, voters approved the bond issue on its second go-around, and the public library is now housed in its new quarters. Descriptions of the process each city went through are followed by a comparative discussion of each element in this process. The results of this discussion have been generalized and are presented as flow charts in Chapter VIII, along with other conclusions drawn from these three experiences.

A librarian who wants to use these results in planning his own campaign should be aware of several limitations which must be placed on our conclusions. The events described occurred in one state. Public libraries in other states may operate under somewhat different laws, and different strategies or procedures may be necessary. Our information on successful campaigns comes from only one of the three cities, in addition to published reports of campaigns. Thus we cannot be certain precisely what combination of organization, strategy, and luck is necessary for a library bond issue to pass.

Much hard work by many people is involved in planning a new public library and in planning and carrying out a campaign to secure voter approval for a bond issue. Even if the bond issue referendum fails, it does not negate the time and effort put into it. Our report is not intended as a criticism of those who worked for, or against, the library. We have tried to describe the events that took place and the decisions that were made. Then we have abstracted some general conclusions from these processes, in the hope that descriptions of unsuccessful experiences might suggest how to plan for successful campaigns.

The American system of government provides many opportunities for the citizen to express his preferences on how his government will be conducted. While this expression of preference is not necessarily clear-cut when the citizen votes for a candidate for elective office, the preference is more clearly defined when the citizen votes on a referendum. In such a situation, especially when a bond issue is involved, the citizen is asked directly to approve, or disapprove, a specific course of action--the governmental unit should, or should not, issue the bonds.[1]

Although the behavior of voters toward referendums has long concerned researchers in political science and sociology, persons in other disciplines have also become interested in the referendum as an object of study. For example, studies of referendums involving bond issues to finance capital construction of schools and public libraries have been made by librarians and educators.[2]

Several approaches are available to the researcher who is interested in studying a referendum. If he can anticipate the election date sufficiently, he can observe the entire process himself. Such an approach presupposes that he is interested not only in the outcome but in the events which occurred prior to the election. This approach also presumes that the investigator can spend the necessary time on the scene, if indeed he can anticipate the occurrence of the referendum. Foreknowledge of referendums on library bond issues is difficult because there is no central source of information about when such issues will be brought to a vote.

The investigator may also conduct a panel study if he can anticipate the election date. The panel study, involving repeated interviews with the same respondents, can be used to examine changes over a period of time.[3] Lazarsfeld and his associates applied the panel technique to study the presidential elections of 1940 and 1948[4] and the technique has been widely used since for studying elective campaigns. The panel technique has not been frequently used in studies of referendums, however, perhaps because the people who might change their vote would be few and difficult to identify in advance. Asking voters about their views on the referendum, when done before the election, might influence the outcome.

A third method open to the researcher who can anticipate the occurrence of a referendum is to conduct an opinion survey of the population almost immediately after the voting. This approach can be useful in determining how members of various socio-economic groups voted and in suggesting reasons for the individual's decision to vote, or not to vote, as well as his decision to vote for or against the issue on the ballot. The potential exists for cooperation between researchers who are interested in voting in local elections per se, and researchers interested in voting on specific types of issues, such as those involving schools or libraries. One example of this cooperation is a study of citizen reaction to the public schools of Birmingham, Michigan, in which researchers from Eastern Michigan University and the University of Michigan worked with laymen and educators of Birmingham.[5] While the preliminary results of this study were actually used by school officials to plan their campaign strategy, cooperation might also take a "pure" form, seeking understanding of the forces operating in a particular situation without attempting to influence events.

In addition to methods which can be used if the investigator is able to make his research plans before voting takes place, methods are also available to the researcher who wishes to investigate a vote which has already occurred. If the election was held in the not-too-distant past, the researcher may still be able to use a survey of voter opinion to suggest reasons for the outcome and to provide some insight into the motivation of individual voters. The former approach was used by Fincher in his survey of voter opinion on reasons for the defeat of a bond issue in Atlanta, Georgia, in August, 1962.[6]

A second approach to the study of an election which has already occurred depends more on the availability of voting statistics than on the timing of the election. Ecological analysis has been widely used in voting studies to examine relationships between characteristics of groups of people and the voting record of these groups. Garrison has used a form of ecological analysis on library elections to examine relationships between the socio-economic characteristics of groups, as revealed in census tracts, and the voting record, as recorded by election precincts.[7] This method involves the assumption that the people living in the census tract are similar and has the further limitation that any relationships found say little about the behavior of individuals.

Practitioners could use Garrison's methods and results to suggest areas of a particular city which might be most favorable to a forthcoming bond issue proposal. The applicability of this type of ecological or social area analysis is limited by the kind of socio-economic data which are available for a particular city. The 1960 Census of Population did not publish socio-economic data by census tracts for cities located outside Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas. If an investigator uses census tract data, he is also limited by the date at which the information was collected; some tracts change radically within a fairly short period.

A third method of investigating previous referendums involves a case study approach. An observer cannot be placed on the scene after the election is over. But the people who were involved can be interviewed in order to obtain insight into the events which took place before, during, and after the referendum. The case study approach involves gathering information about the communities in which the library bond issue elections took place. In addition to local newspaper articles for the period involved, a wide variety of other data can be assembled about the community, its politics, and history. Black has provided a useful guide to such materials.[8] Although she uses one specific metropolitan area as an example, similar sources can also be used to obtain information about other cities. For one unfamiliar with a community, detailed maps are essential, especially a map showing the voting precincts. Election statistics by precinct must also be obtained. These should be taken from the official tally sheets kept by the municipality. While local newspaper articles might also report the results, such figures must be viewed as preliminary. Voting on different kinds of referendums (sewer bonds, school bonds, library bonds, etc.), might be examined for the city over a period of time. If the library bond issue was voted on at the same time as other issues, as in a general or primary election, for example, the relationships between the vote on the library issue and the other issues can be examined.

In the study reported in the following chapters, the case-study approach outlined above was used to describe the events in three Illinois cities which held library elections. The earliest vote had occurred four years, and the latest six months, before the present study was begun, so it was deemed inadvisable to try to undertake an opinion survey of people who lived in the communities. All three libraries are located in major cities in the same state and were faced with a similar problem: the public libraries were housed in obsolete buildings which needed either substantial remodeling or replacement so that the communities could be provided with improved library service. The cities examined in this report are Champaign, Peoria, and Quincy, Illinois.

Before describing the events which took place in each of the three cities and then drawing parallels between them, the methods used in gathering information should be described in somewhat greater detail.

An interview schedule was drawn up after a review of the pertinent literature dealing with library bond issues and with voting behavior in local elections. Examination of local newspapers issued in the three cities during the period immediately before the referendum, and preliminary discussions with the librarians in each community, helped establish lists of people who were most likely to have useful information about the library elections. The librarian, board members, lay persons active in the campaign, and opponents of the issue were included. Similar questions were asked of each interviewee to help the investigators see the individual's perspective on events. Questions asked were of the open-end variety in order to advance the investigators' insight into the situation and the interviewee's relationship to it.

Material obtained from the interviews was supplemented by information obtained from printed and manuscript sources. Local newspapers for the months preceding the election were examined, not only to gather background information and names of people who were active in the library campaign but also to determine the kinds of information printed about the library. Such information ranged from feature articles on the library, its problems, or its employees through news articles, advertising, editorials, editorial cartoons, and letters to the editor.

By using some of the methods outlined here, the practitioner who is interested in studying his own local election can gain a better insight into the forces which operate during a particular election campaign. Of course such a study should also draw on relevant literature to provide a theoretical framework within which to conduct the investigation.[9]

References to Chapter I

[1] This distinction is pointed out by various people. See Alvin Boskoff and Harmon Zeigler, Voting Patterns in a Local Election (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1964), p. 38, and Robert Lane, Political Life (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1959), pp. 46-47. Garrison refers to this matter of a voter being faced by a policy decision with regard to public libraries in his "Voting on a Library Bond Issue: Two Elections in Akron, Ohio, 1961 and 1962," Library Quarterly, 33 (July, 1963), 229.

[2] Examples of such studies are cited in Guy Garrison, "Library Elections: A Selected Bibliography," Illinois Libraries, 45 (September, 1963), 377-378 and 382.

[3] The panel study has been described in Paul F. Lazarsfeld and Morris Rosenberg (eds.), The Language of Social Research (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1955), p. 204, which also provides examples of panel studies, pp. 242-259.

[4] The results of the 1940 study were reported in Paul F. Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet, The People's Choice (New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1944). A second edition was published in 1948. Results of the replication in the 1948 election were reported in Bernard Berelson, Paul F. Lazarsfeld, and William McPhee, Voting (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954).

[5] The results of this study are reported in R. V. Smith, et al., Community Organization and Support of the Schools ("Cooperative Research Project" No. 1828; Ypsilanti, Michigan, 1964).

[6] Cameron Fincher, Atlanta Studies its Bond Issue ("Research Paper" No. 25; Atlanta: Georgia State College, School of Business Administration, Bureau of Business and Economic Research, 1963).

[7] Guy Garrison, Seattle Voters and Their Public Library ("Research Series," No. 2; Springfield, Illinois: Illinois State Library, 1961), and his "Voting on a Library Bond Issue."

[8] Dorothy Black, "Recent Materials Useful for a Community Study," Illinois Libraries, 49 (April, 1967), 272-284.

[9] A supplement to this article appears as an Appendix to Part IV of these Studies.

CHAPTER II

THE CHAMPAIGN ELECTION

The City

The city of Champaign is located approximately in the center of Champaign County, an area incorporating 1,000 square miles of flat, fertile farm land. Champaign and its sister city, Urbana, form a trading center for all or parts of eight prosperous agricultural counties.

The presence in the Champaign-Urbana community of the University of Illinois greatly affects the character of Champaign.[1] A large portion of the population is engaged in service occupations and there is a high percentage of professional persons. The major occupational groupings for men are, in descending order: professional, craftsmen, service workers, and managers. For employed women the three major groups are clerical, service workers, and professional. Only 8.5 percent of the labor force is engaged in manufacturing, with 20.4 percent in retail and wholesale. "White collar" workers make up 57.9 percent of the labor force. The percentage of women in the labor force is 40.8.

The 1960 population of Champaign was 49,583. There had been a population increase between 1950 and 1960 of 25.3 percent and the growth rate in the current decade is just as high. The median age is 23.9 years, considerably below the national average, due to the presence of the University. The median number of school years completed for persons over 25 is 12.4, and 60.3 percent of the population have completed high school or better. The total foreign stock in the community is 11.6 percent, with 9.9 percent of the population non-white.

In 1960 the median income for the community was $6,531, with 13.4 percent of the families having incomes under $3,000 and 20.9 percent having incomes over $10,000. The urban character of the city is shown by an average population per square mile of 7,628, a figure indicating fairly high density.

The Library

The Champaign Public Library has a long history, going back to its founding as an association library in 1868. It became a public library in 1876 when the city council voted to accept the gift of the Champaign Library Association. The present building, financed by a private gift, was opened in 1896.[2] The library has no branches but does operate a bookmobile.

While rooms have been renovated and functional areas shifted about the building, there has been no major remodeling of the original building. During the 1930's double-deck stacks were installed and, at the same time, steel beams were put in the basement in an effort to accommodate growth. At various times the library has had new lighting installed.

The library is governed by a board of trustees appointed by the mayor for three-year terms. The present tax-levy rate is .0704, the legal limit in Illinois being .12 without referendum approval. In all the years of the library's operation there have been no library elections for any purpose, either for raising the tax rate or for building purposes, until the June, 1967, election.

Preliminary Decisions

In the mid 1950's the need for an expansion of library facilities in Champaign became evident to the board. Several possible architectural plans for expansion of the library were prepared for the library board in 1956 by Simon-Rettberg, Champaign architects. A present member of the board says that the reason nothing more was done at that time was probably because the board was never really satisfied with the plans for the addition. Also in 1956 the board hired Harold Lancour and C. Walter Stone, of the University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, to do a community opinion survey. They used questionnaires sent to library users and registered borrowers, as well as a telephone survey of non-users and interviews with community leaders. Lancour and Stone presented their "Survey of Community Opinion and Recommendations for Future Development" to the library board on February 1, 1957. The survey conclusions were critical of the level of library service in Champaign and aroused resentment on the part of some of the board members and a former librarian.

The present librarian began work in March, 1962. In February, 1963, the board voted to set up a Building Improvements Fund and to place in it any unused monies at the end of each year. In July the president recommended that the entire board meet with the city council to explain their plans and to urge the council to grant an increased levy for the Building Improvements Fund. This joint meeting was held and the library board used one version of the Simon-Rettberg plans as the legally necessary presentation of plans to secure this additional annual levy. Neither the librarian nor the board had any real expectation of using this plan as a basis for construction, since it called for extensive remodeling of the present building and the construction of a stack area as an addition to the building.[3]

In September, 1963, the board was informed by the city manager that the city would establish a levy ordinance which would provide $16,000 for the Building Improvements Fund to be collected in 1964 and it was the intention of the council to continue such a levy each year. The library still has most of this levy. Some money from this fund was spent for the architect's and consultant's fees during the election campaign. The fund now stands at $70,000.

Three new board members had been appointed in 1962, and they did a great deal to cause more rapid progress toward some sort of solution to the library's space needs. For one thing, the board began to meet every month and for longer sessions. The duties of the board became more clearly defined.

In February, 1964, the construction title was added to the Library Services Act and the board informed the State Library of their interest in building and asked to be informed as soon as it was possible to apply for state financial assistance.

The Long-Range Planning Committee of the board, which had been formed in 1963, reported in October, 1964, that plans had been discussed for future expansion of the library. The possible means and methods of increasing library service, such as bookmobiles, branch libraries, and acquiring land for future additions or a new building, were mentioned.

At the November board meeting, "Dr. Kulwin reported on a meeting of the Long-Range Planning Committee. . . . The recommendations of the committee were threefold: (1) that the library board seek the advice of a surveyor in planning, (2) that a member of the committee be authorized to discuss the method of acquiring more land with the city attorney, and (3) that the committee be given permission to discuss with the owner of the properties west of the library the possibility of future acquisition by the library."[4] The librarian suggested that Joseph L. Wheeler be approached to see if he would undertake the survey.

A member of the Long-Range Planning Committee recalls that there were still board members who thought that the library should not give up the present building; therefore it was the consensus of the committee that although they favored an entirely new building, they should not make such a recommendation until they had a sound basis for it.

At the December board meeting a letter was read from Wheeler concerning the type of survey he was prepared to do. The suggestion was also made that the board include in the next budget a request for money for the acquisition of land.

In January the board hired Wheeler and set a request of $32,000 for the building fund. A committee had met with the city manager to explain their plans to date and to state that the best course of action seemed to be to acquire options on properties to the west of the library.

Joseph L. Wheeler presented his study to the board in March, 1965. Although he did include a plan for adding to the existing building, he characterized such an approach as money spent "for an inadequate sized, inefficiently arranged, unsatisfactory project, attempted in the name of economy. No one would be satisfied nor happy. It would be a matter always of explaining and apologizing."[5]

Wheeler went into great detail on present trends in library service and building requirements and used existing standards to show that in order to meet minimum needs for floor space the library would be forced to build on another site. He recommended a site as close to the center of town as possible, stating that the most desirable spot would be on the edge of a downtown park. Failing that, he recommended a site on the main street itself. Wheeler's forceful arguments for a new library building on a new site convinced the board that this was the best course of action.

More than a year elapsed before an architect was retained. During this time the planning committee continued to meet regularly. The board also engaged legal counsel to investigate the deed of gift from the Burnham family, donors of the original building, in order to clarify the library's position with regard to a possible move.

The Building Program

October, 1965, saw the adoption by the board of a proposed "program for building and services" as a basis for exploration of means of implementing the goals. The next month a site committee was formed. As the first step in a building campaign the board felt that a building consultant should be hired; accordingly in January, 1966, Lester Stoffel of Oak Park was retained as consultant.

At the next board meeting Stoffel discussed the building plans and the next steps: (1) a refinement of the written program and (2) the selection of an architect to study the old building and its use and to help with the site selection.

By July the board had commissioned Richardson, Severns, Scheeler, and Associates, and they started drawing plans. Revisions were made in the program for library services and building. More square footage had to be added for population growth and for anticipated inclusion of the Lincoln Trail Libraries System headquarters. It soon became apparent that no site so far considered would be large enough.

Before a final decision could be made on the amount of financing needed, the Lincoln Trail Libraries System had to be persuaded to come into the proposed building. It had just been formally constituted in January, 1966, and the librarian appointed in August. At the first meeting of the system board at which he was present, the proposal to combine the system headquarters and the new Champaign Public Library was dropped like a bombshell, or so it apparently appeared to the other members of the system board. The meeting was stormy, but a committee was set up to study the proposal and make a recommendation on the matter to the board as a whole.

The objections raised by the system board members are hard to assess realistically as they had deep emotional overtones. For one thing, they felt that the system would lose its autonomy and distinctiveness. Also they suspected that Champaign would get all the benefit of the system if it were housed in the library. The system director and those in favor of the move tried to convince the other board members of the duplication involved in housing the headquarters separately. Shared storage, conference rooms, office space, staff, and reference service were considered.

After a great deal of discussion, the board passed a conditional acceptance subject to the details being worked out satisfactorily. They appointed a committee to work with the Champaign board.

When the board and the librarian heard that a site near downtown might be available it seemed to be the answer to all of their problems. The park board had rejected

Mr. Wheeler's proposal for a library in Westside Park. Other sites offered to them did not meet the downtown location criteria, and those sites which were on the main street were too small to meet the minimum square footage needs. In March, 1967, the library got options on four lots on University Avenue near the downtown area and two blocks from the present library.

In April the Champaign Public Library presented its application for federal funds to the LSCA Title II subcommittee of the Illinois State Library. The application was approved contingent on satisfactory plans for the building and on site acquisition.

The board had already met with the city council in January, 1967, in a study session to present their plans for the new building preparatory to a request to hold a bond issue referendum. At first the board and librarian were undecided about the wisdom of attempting to hold the bond referendum at the same time as the city election in April, because they had been warned against general elections by other librarians and board and because the city election showed signs of developing into a bitter contest. The matter was settled for them by the late date at which the Lincoln Trail Libraries decided to come in with them and by the date of their application for Title II funds. The board did not wish to go to the voters during May because tax bills are received then. They felt that many potential supporters connected with the University would be out of town if they waited till too late in the summer. Finally June 3 was set as the date.

The amount to be authorized by the voters was $1,960,000. The Champaign Library would have received $400,000 from LSCA, and $100,000 from the Lincoln Trail Libraries System toward construction costs. The issue that appeared on the election ballot read:

> Shall bonds in the amount of $1,960,000 be issued by the city of Champaign, Champaign County, Illinois, for the purpose of paying a portion of the cost of constructing and equipping a new library building and acquiring a site therefor, said bonds to mature serially as follows: $100,000 in 1969; $125,000 in each of the years 1970 to 1974 inclusive; $120,000 in 1975; $115,000 in 1976; and $100,000 in each of the years 1977 to 1986 inclusive, and bear interest from date at the rate of not to exceed four and one-half percent (4 1/2%) per annum?

The Campaign

For some time the librarian and the board members had been studying bond issue campaigns in other cities. They had talked to people at state and area meetings. Literature and flyers from other libraries were examined and passed around at board meetings. The building consultant also advised them about campaign methods. When the date was set, a publicity committee of board members was set up to handle newspaper, radio, and television coverage. Fact sheets were prepared and sent out to the local news media.

The advice given the library board had been unanimous in suggesting that they concentrate the campaign in the last two weeks before the referendum date. Due to the meeting dates of organizations this was stretched out somewhat. A ten-minute speech was worked up to be used by the board members and the librarian. During the last couple of weeks, the librarian alone often made as many as four talks in one day.

Given the month chosen for the campaign, it was difficult to use the PTA groups, traditionally a good avenue for reaching parents. Most of them, if they met at all in May, had picnics or social evenings for their final meetings.

The Friends of the Library organized coffees, and the librarian herself spoke at 17 of these. The Friends also did mailing and telephoning as needed. A mailing list was compiled, consisting of 1,200 "good patrons," a selected list of University staff members living in Champaign, the Republican women's list, PTA rosters, and a selective Democratic list. Twenty-six hundred pieces were mailed. At the coffees, people were urged to send postcards for the library to their friends and 1,000 were used.

As the campaign progressed the first signs of opposition began to appear. On the 31st of May flyers expressing opposition to the bond issue were received in Champaign. They were also against the mental health issue, a referendum that followed the library's by two days. The flyers were anonymous, of course, but did carry a post office box number. A member of the library board was able to determine that the box was rented by a local real estate agent who had been campaign manager for an ultra-conservative, newly-elected member of the city council. The flyers were widely distributed with large mailing lists evidently gleaned from many sources. Several library board members received them. The same flyers were given out at one downtown restaurant.

On election day volunteers did some telephoning for the library. Some of these people had lists, such as the parochial school parents, PTA's, and club membership lists. There were cars available for rides to the polls, but they were not used by the voters.

On the Saturday of the referendum there was an anonymous telephone campaign against the library bond issue. The caller would say something like: "Did you get your tax bill? Did it go up? If you don't want it to go up again, go down and vote against the library." The caller would then hang up.

The Election

Of 4,662 votes cast in the referendum, there were 3,450 "no" votes, 1,128 "yes" votes and 44 spoiled ballots.[6] The library won in only one precinct and tied in one, both in the northeast Negro neighborhood. It was defeated everywhere else, but most soundly in lower middle class, "blue-collar" areas. After the two best precincts, the ones more favorable to the library were in areas of fairly high income with a high percentage of professional and university people.

The least favorable precincts tended to have about an average turnout of voters, while those precincts most favorable tended to have either a very high or very low level of voter turnout.

The defeat was a horrible experience for all concerned. For a time those directly involved in the campaign found it hard to discuss the defeat and painful to think about future plans. Some of the board members were enthusiastic about pressing on as soon as possible for a second election and some were not. The Lincoln Trail Libraries System, hard-pressed for space, has since decided to proceed with its own separate building.

References to Chapter II

[1] Population characteristics taken from U.S. Census Bureau, Population Characteristics, Illinois; 1960 or U.S. Census Bureau, County and City Data Book, 1967.

[2] The History of the Champaign Public Library and Reading Room, by Edwin A. Kratz, 1926, gives a detailed history of the library.

[3] Interview with Mrs. Kathryn Gesterfield.

[4] Champaign Public Library Board, _Minutes_, November, 1964.

[5] Joseph L. Wheeler, _Public Library Building Project at Champaign_. Manuscript, p. 12.

[6] See Table 3.

CHAPTER III

THE QUINCY ELECTION

The City

Situated on the east bank of the Mississippi River, Quincy, Illinois, is a county seat and the largest city within a radius of 100 miles. Since its founding early in the 19th century, the city has expanded eastward away from the river. A public square, the center of the original city, is now located between the river and the major part of the business district.

Quincy serves as the retail trading center for a population of some 200,000. The city includes a number of manufacturing firms. This emphasis on manufacturing and retail trade is reflected in the major occupational groups of Quincy residents. For men, these groups are operatives, craftsmen, managers, and sales workers. The major occupational groups for women are clerical, operatives, and service.

As the only large city within a 100-mile radius, Quincy is somewhat isolated. Although it is served by railroads, highways, bus lines, and an airline, the city is not on a major artery for passenger traffic. It has grown in recent decades but not as rapidly as many other communities of its size in Illinois. Quincy included roughly 45,000 people at the time of the library election. The population tends to be slightly older than that of the other two communities studied. A rather high percentage of its population consists of people who are 65 or older.

The local newspaper traces its history back to the early days of the city. There are two radio stations, each affiliated with a national network. Programs from the three national television networks are supplied to Quincy by two local television stations.

Parks in the city and county provide a wide range of recreation facilities. The community also maintains a symphony orchestra, little theater, and an art center. The city-county historical society is housed in a mansion built by an early settler. Its hospitals and clinics make the city an important medical center for its area.

The progressive public school system is part of an educational milieu which also includes a number of parochial schools. A business school, several trade schools, and a coeducational liberal arts college are located in the city.

The Library

The public library, founded during the late 19th century, is located on the southwest corner of the public square. The library's corner entrance opens onto an intersection passed by many vehicles each day. Hotels occupy the other corners of this busy intersection.

Completed in 1889, the public library building was designed to hold some 20,000 volumes, a figure which was exceeded before 1900. To meet its need for space, the library constructed an addition during the late 1920's and installed additional stacks early in World War II. In the postwar decades the library's circulation, collection, and number of borrowers continued to grow, and space became increasingly more difficult to find. Indeed, only 60 percent of the square footage in the building is usable for library purposes; the remainder consists of monumental features common in libraries of the period.

Preliminary Decisions

During the 1960's, the need for space became so great that audio-visual services were housed in a boiler room, and most periodical back files were stored in another part of the basement. In 1963, three years before the bond issue election, the library board took a step toward alleviating its space shortage by acquiring the building adjoining the library on the west. This building was demolished later. By the end of 1963, a consultant had been retained to guide the library's growth. The librarian, with the assistance of board members (one of whom is also a librarian) prepared a building program. This program was completed and sent to the consultant for his comments early in 1964.

Selection of a site was not difficult since those involved favored enlarging the present site and erecting a new building there, or else remodeling the existing 1889 structure. Perhaps something can be said for the corner which has been the "library corner" as far back as most people could remember. Since the land was already owned by the city, site costs would not be as high as if a new location closer to the business district were chosen. The library was able to obtain an option on a second piece of adjoining property, thus making its potential site include one-quarter of the city block. The site is on the same block as a municipal parking lot, and the plans included on-site parking for library patrons.

By the middle of 1964 the library had selected a local architect who was proceeding to develop plans for a building on the enlarged site. Before deciding to construct a new library, the board asked its architect to investigate the possibility of remodeling the old building. With fire exits far below safety standards, inadequate plumbing, and the erratic placement of interior load-bearing walls, the cost of remodeling would have been prohibitive.

In addition to its building consultant and architect, the board utilized the services of other types of experts. Consultants on the staff of the Illinois State Library met with the librarian and board to discuss methods of financing the construction. The librarian corresponded with other librarians to seek advice. The advice of the planning firm which had prepared the city plan was also sought. The firm recommended several locations and urged that a new library be part of a cultural center.

The city had been chosen as the site for a study of the community image of the public library, sponsored by the American Library Association. This study, completed about two years before the bond issue referendum, provided another judgment that the library was suffering from inadequate quarters. The study concluded that the library was well thought of by the community.[1]

By late 1965, about a year before the referendum, the board had decided to seek voter approval to issue bonds for financing the new building. Several alternatives were open for financing, including the accumulation of funds, raising the tax levy, securing some money from the library system and some from gifts or grants. The Great River Library System, of which Quincy is a part, was not very well developed at this time. Although the system and the library might jointly occupy the new building, construction money provided by the system would be likely to pay for its share of the new facility, and no more. Even though Quincy's largest industries are absentee-owned, several important firms are locally owned. There is a fairly wealthy group of local citizens who are interested in improving the quality of life in the city. These families were not asked to contribute to the library building fund, since the board felt the library, as a municipal service, should be financed primarily from tax funds. During the bond issue campaign, and after opposition developed, the board pointed out that gifts would be welcome and some had been received. The board sought and received approval for a Federal grant under LSCA to finance part of the construction cost. Although the library was required to place the full amount of the cost on the ballot ($1,330,000), the actual cost to taxpayers would have been less because of the private gifts and the Federal grant.

The Campaign

Having decided to build a new library on the present enlarged site, the board and librarian next began to develop plans for the election and the campaign which would precede it. They drew upon the advice of their building consultant, a consultant from the state library, the experience of other librarians in the state, and publications prepared by the American Library Association in addition to advice sought from local citizens. A local attorney was also retained to represent the library.

The referendum was scheduled for the November, 1966, general election, in part because the board felt that the higher turnout, even in a non-presidential year, would give the greatest number of citizens a chance to express an opinion on the issue. Also, the library would not be accused of selecting an inconvenient date--a charge more easily levelled at a special election. The board also felt that a regularly scheduled election was preferable to a special election since the cost to the library, and hence to the taxpayers, would be less. Ballots had to be printed in either case, but the library would not have to pay election judges or rent polling places if it participated in a regularly scheduled election. By selecting the November date, however, the library was faced with the necessity of competing for attention with issues of state and national interest. Such would not have been the case had the library participated in a city election, in which the issues under consideration would have been more clearly of local interest.

The library board also sought approval of the city council for the referendum. Meeting with the board at least once in the old library, the council granted approval to hold the bond issue referendum, leaving slightly over eight months for the library to organize and conduct its campaign. These meetings between the council and board, and the council's action, were reported by the local newspaper, but no program had been launched by the library to explain its need for modernized and expanded facilities to the city as a whole.

While preparing its presentation to the city council the library had begun to discuss the general outlines of its campaign and to contact people who might work for the library referendum. The library retained a local person, part-time, who developed the information to be presented to the council. This factual information was then used as the basis for the library's appeal later. The board was also searching for someone to head the campaign committee. In late March, a "Dutch-treat" luncheon was held to which people who might work on the campaign were invited.

Preparation for the referendum continued during the spring of 1966, with two men being chosen in June as co-chairmen for the campaign. These men were willing to take complete responsibility for the conduct of the campaign and its outcome. They were not inexperienced in such matters, having worked together on a successful bond issue campaign several years earlier.

During the summer the board became somewhat uneasy since the co-chairmen did not appear to be doing anything. The co-chairmen were, however, talking about the proposed issue with a variety of local citizens. As a result of this informal survey of local opinion leaders, the co-chairmen concluded that the library referendum was not likely to succeed in November. Meeting with the library board shortly before Labor Day, they explained their view. At this point the board could have decided to wait until the following year, when either of two elections focusing more specifically on local issues were scheduled. The Federal grant would have been available through these dates. After the board discussed alternatives and decided to go ahead with the November date, the co-chairmen resigned. Since their names had not been made public, they remained quiet during the ten weeks left before the election.

Left without its lay chairmen, the board itself assumed responsibility for conducting the campaign, aided by other local people who had already been recruited. An executive secretary was selected to serve as head of the campaign. She resigned because of illness and was replaced, less than a month before the election, by a very dynamic woman. Decisions on campaign strategy were made by a steering committee made up of board members and the committee chairmen.

The Quincy library did not retain a consultant to advise them specifically on the campaign. The library made use of the advice and counsel of many of the same people who had helped in developing the building program. The board also made use of the political knowledge and expertise of its members, who included a member of the city council and a school administrator skilled in public relations work who had worked closely with successful campaigns for school bond issues.

By mid-September the steering committee was organized and the campaign had begun in earnest. Various techniques were used to explain why the library was seeking approval of a bond issue. A brochure was prepared and printed for wide distribution. Other leaflets were mimeographed, and letters were sent to library borrowers. Workers were recruited to carry brochures from house to house urging a favorable vote whenever they could talk to a householder. Posters were printed, and a poster contest, featuring "the bulging library," was conducted among school children.

The endorsements committee sent letters to organizations urging them to support the bond issue by endorsing the idea of a new library. Names of organizations which endorsed the issue were published shortly before the election. The mimeographed, seven-page fact sheet was also distributed to organizations and groups. Churches and other organizations were asked to mention the library issue in publications to their members.

While the door-to-door campaign was designed to cover the entire city, another committee was arranging speakers to talk to local groups and tell the library's story. In addition to board members and other citizens, the speaker's bureau received help from members of a men's service group at the college. These students enthusiastically prepared and rehearsed their speeches.

An open house was held in the library to show citizens the inadequacies of the building. About 50 people attended.

Library supporters also publicized the referendum through local media. The newspaper carried pictures and descriptions of crowded conditions, in addition to reporting the names of groups which had endorsed the library issue. As opposition developed, the paper printed letters to the editor on both sides of the controversy while editorially endorsing the referendum and urging its passage. Television and radio stations were supplied with spot announcements urging a favorable vote. However, when a prominent citizen, long active in Quincy's cultural life, took a public stand against the referendum and the issue became controversial, the library was handicapped because its publicity program depended on free use of public service time on radio and television. After controversy developed, the stations were less willing to permit one side of the issue to be aired without giving the other side equal time without charge.

During the last week of the campaign, one day was set aside for coffee hours, held in various areas of the city, at which the referendum could be discussed. The chronic problem of obtaining enough volunteers meant that coffees were not held on each block as originally planned.

Such a campaign requires the work of a great many people and involves some money. The Quincy library took pains to point out that tax funds were not being spent on the campaign. The money that was spent was donated to the library for that purpose. A full-page newspaper advertisement printed the Sunday before election day was paid for by such a contribution. Library supporters relied primarily on donated services.

The library forces directed their appeal, focused primarily during the two months before election day, to the entire city. Their appeal was based on the inadequacy of the present building and on the distinctive color of the special library ballot. The bond issue was proposed as the least expensive way of providing adequate facilities for the library and thus bringing a greater degree of "progress" to the city.

The major public opponent of the library referendum based his opposition on the value of the existing building, not necessarily as a public library, and the fact that the board had not tried to obtain gifts from private sources to finance part of the new building. His objections included the lack of consultation of experts in city planning and beautification and also suggested that the community had not been given an adequate chance to discuss the issue. The concern of this prominent citizen had been reported to the board as early as March, 1966, so that his opposition could not have been a complete surprise. The public became aware of it through newspaper reports or a handbill delivered door-to-door late in September. The opponent also wrote the library board in September, saying that he would publicly oppose the referendum, and describing the reasons behind his opposition. While he felt Quincy needed a new library, his serious reservations about the board's proposal led him to a position of public opposition. The board met with him in October to discuss their differences, but by that time the opponent's objections were public knowledge.

The public opposition of this important man served as a catalyst for others to voice their objections. While those opposing the library referendum were not an organized group, they made their opposition known through the "letters to the editor" column of the newspaper. Presumably they also talked to friends and co-workers, urging them to vote against the library referendum.

By asking to see plans for the new library, the opposition persuaded the pro-library group to display a model. The interior arrangements of the proposed building were then criticized.

A discussion of the referendum appeared on local television a few days before the election. Two opponents discussed their objections, and two library board members urged passage of the issue. Each side was taped separately with the other side not knowing what was being said.

Using the arguments advanced by the opposition, a voter could cast a negative ballot on the library referendum, feeling that he was voting in favor of greater discussion of the issue but not really voting against the library. He might well have sifted the evidence and concluded that while the library needed a new building, the proposition, as presented, could be improved.

The Election

On election day Quincy voters went to the polls to cast ballots on a variety of state and local issues. The statewide races involved three offices: U.S. Senator, State Treasurer, and State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Other races of more than local importance included those for Congressman, State Senator, State Representative, Trustee of the State University, Circuit Court Judge and Associate Judge, plus four county offices: Clerk, Treasurer, Sheriff, and Superintendent of Schools.

In this general election, races and issues which were not primarily Quincy-oriented formed the greater part. Five special ballots were also to be voted on. These included three of more than county-wide interest, one of county-wide interest, and the library bond referendum, of city-wide interest only. All of these special ballots failed in Quincy.

With the large number of candidates being voted on, in addition to five special issues, the library had heard that the election judges were unhappy about the monumental job of counting the votes. Several days before the election the library board wrote to the judges explaining the purpose of the orange ballot and expressing their thanks to the judges for taking on this extra task.

On election day the board's attorney was asked to investigate two precincts in which there was a question about the manner in which the election judges were handing out the ballots. No legal action resulted.

Quincy voters defeated the library bond referendum by a substantial margin. The Official Proceedings of the city council reported 9,332 votes against the bonds and 5,791 votes for them. Expressed as percentages of the total vote, 55.7 percent voted against the bonds and 34.6 percent voted in favor; 9.7 percent of the ballots were excluded. The excluded ballots included those which were spoiled or invalid as well as all those from one precinct in which the judges merely totalled the ballots, not dividing them into "yes" and "no." The referendum passed in seven out of the city's 48 precincts.

Interviewees agreed that five of the seven favorable precincts were inhabited primarily by "white-collar" groups, including many who had attended college. One of the remaining favorable precincts included the area around the library. This is an old section of the downtown district, inhabited primarily, the interviewees said, by older, retired people who lived in small apartments or in residential hotels. The remaining favorable precinct is divided into two distinct parts. One of these comprises the residents of an old people's home for men, and the second part is an area of new houses occupied by a mixture of "white-collar" and working-class families. Although this description does not meet rigorous tests of validity, it suggests that the Quincy election does not disprove the hypothesis that residents of areas inhabited by "white-collar" or professional people tend to vote in favor of library bond issues. It can be argued that the people living near the library would naturally favor a new building that would improve the area and be easier for them to use. The men in the old people's home could also have been motivated by a similar willingness to favor civic progress.

Aftermath

After the defeat, following up on one of the criticisms levelled by the opposition, the library board scheduled a public meeting to discuss the next step. While the consensus of the meeting was that the library needed a new building, there was a great deal of disagreement about possible sites.

Early in 1967, three groups of citizens were formed to examine various aspects of the problem. One studied the election and the reasons for the library's defeat. A second considered means for financing a new library. The third considered sites for the new building. These groups presented reports which the library board discussed during the summer and fall of 1967.

The board began searching for alternative sites, using the recommendations given by its citizens' committee. Members of the board also prepared to seek money from local foundations. A Friends of the Library group was also established during the summer following the bond issue defeat. The board, with the need for modernized library facilities still unmet, was also considering a second referendum.

References to Chapter III

[1] George Fry Associates, "Community Image of the Free Public Library, Quincy, Illinois," unpublished report dated October 29, 1964.

CHAPTER IV

THE PEORIA ELECTION

The City

As the center of a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, Peoria serves as a major wholesale market and retail shopping center in Illinois. Peoria is one of the largest cash corn markets in the nation, with annual estimated receipts of 34 million dollars. Soybean, wheat, and livestock receipts are all large. At the same time, Peoria has a healthy industrial base with a long list of manufactured products. There are six radio stations and three television stations in the Peoria area. Bradley University is in the central city, and a U.S. Regional Research Laboratory is also located there.

Population in Peoria decreased in the decade 1950 to 1960 by 7.8 percent. An estimate of population for January 1, 1968, is 136,000, an increase of 31 percent. About 10 percent of the population is Negro. The median age is higher than Champaign, at 31.9 years, and the median number of school years for persons over 25 is less--10.5 years. Only 40 percent of the population have completed high school. Forty-four percent of the labor force are in "white-collar" positions, with 32 percent in manufacturing and 21.3 percent in retail and wholesale jobs.

After a long history of apathy, Peoria is now moving ahead with many interrelated civic projects. The downtown area is being revitalized--Sears, Roebuck has developed two square blocks for a store and underground parking, the Caterpillar Tractor Company has built a high-rise administrative building downtown, and a new county courthouse was occupied in 1964. School bond issues, once sure to be defeated, have been passed in recent years. Annexation has brought developing suburban areas into the city, thus strengthening the tax base.

The Library

Library history in Peoria began when quarreling religious factions each started a library. When the disagreement was settled in 1856, they merged and in 1880 donated their collection and leased their quarters to the Free Public

Library. Later the Peoria Mercantile Library sold its property and donated the proceeds to build a public library. The city bought the land, and the building was opened in 1897, with school board offices on the first floor and art and science societies on the third. As the library expanded no extensive remodeling or stack units were required.

The first branch building was built, with Carnegie funds, in 1911. Another branch was added in 1926, and since 1940 four more branches have been established. By 1960 the combined circulation of the branches was more than twice that of the downtown library. All of the branches were constructed without issuing bonds. In 1947 the library acquired a garage next to the main library to house the audio-visual materials.

Preliminary Decisions

By the mid-50's the library building was clearly inadequate. Bookstacks were jammed; there was insufficient seating space, little work space, poor toilet facilities, and eleven different floor levels. The building required more maintenance every year and had reached a point where several major jobs, such as a new roof and new heating plant, were needed at once.

Added to the deteriorating physical condition and the limitations it placed on service was the increased pressure of use, particularly by students. The library had been built when the population of Peoria was 41,000; by 1960 it was 103,000.

The present librarian was hired in 1955 and charged specifically by the board with the task of tackling the building problem. Before a decision was made on a course of action, the board asked Ralph Ulveling and Charles Mohrhardt to help them decide whether to remodel, build an addition, or build a new building. After receiving all the information, the consultants responded that the condition of the foundation and supporting walls and the position of the interior stairs made remodeling impossible. They recommended a new building and said that if an addition was put up, it should be with the idea of moving into it and tearing down the old building before erecting the second half. The necessity of a new building was so immediately apparent to them that they even refused a fee for their advice.

Formal commitment to a new main library came with the approval by the city council of a long-range plan by the city's planning department on June 29, 1959. The architect was engaged a year later. After he was hired there was a long search for a site. The librarian felt that the present site was acceptable, but he wished to avoid the problem of moving twice and also felt that there might be a better location available. Over a period of time at least five different locations were seriously considered, but in each instance the board found that other groups had major projects planned for the sites. The remaining space in the courthouse square was too small and the county supervisors did not want the library there in any case. By this time the tremendous redevelopment of the downtown area had improved the present site as a location, so in October, 1963, the board decided to use it with some additional lots.

The library board did look for alternative means of financing the building. The board tried to see if a library could be built under the Public Building Commission Law. No specific reference to public libraries had been made in the law, and it seemed that this might have been just an oversight. Local and area legislators were ready to introduce an amendment, but other members of the state legislature advised against it, so the project was dropped.

Under Illinois law it is permissable to set aside revenue earmarked for capital improvements, but the library could not accumulate enough funds in a reasonable length of time to make it possible to erect a building by this method. The Illinois Valley Library System, for which Peoria is headquarters, was not in existence then, so any contribution to the building fund from this source was impossible. Establishment of the system was anticipated, however, so the building was planned to meet its future needs.

The decision to apply for LSCA Title II money to help with building costs was not unanimous by the board. There was a feeling that there might be public aversion to the use of Federal funds, and the fact that the library would have a grant of $400,000 was not played up in the campaign.

The Campaign

Once the board had decided that a bond issue was necessary for the new building, they resolved that they were going to keep on until it was achieved, and if the first attempt was defeated they would try again. They did feel that the need was urgent enough and the facts clear enough that if they waged a thorough, informative campaign they would have a good chance of winning on the first ballot. Though the library did have to conduct a second campaign, they came within 16 votes of a victory the first time.

The librarian and the board thought that the library would do better in a general election when they would reach more voters. No one favored using a special election, and some felt that voters are inclined to be wary of such elections. In December, 1963, the board voted to ask the city council to place the issue on the April ballot. The attempt for a high turnout was to be coupled with a comprehensive, informational campaign aimed at reaching all segments of the community. Thorough public relations and publicity were considered to be integral parts of the campaign.

The actual conduct of the first campaign was left largely to the librarian and assistant librarian. The assistant librarian was made a voting member of the building committee. The staff was informed that there would be a number of committees and that every staff member would be expected to serve on one. A staff meeting was scheduled, at which the librarian spoke on the need for a new building and the assistant librarian described the plan for the drive and gave out committee assignments. Staff members were asked to suggest names for the formation of a citizens' committee consisting of friends of the library willing to give time and talent to the drive. Staff members did mailing tasks, conducted tours of the library, and attempted to influence voters on their own initiative.

A building consultant was not retained to help in the campaign, but the board did hire an advertising firm. The administration and staff of the firm donated hundreds of man-hours to the library, and the library was charged only for actual costs. They helped plan and create brochures and spot announcements for television and radio, and set up schedules for publicity. One of the vice-presidents of the advertising agency became so interested in the public relations program of the library that he offered to assist it, without commission, on a continuing basis. The librarian requested publicity scrapbooks from several libraries and had copies of materials to work from.

The total political expertise involved at a high level in the Peoria referendum campaign was formidable. The president of the board was active in the local Republican party leadership. A state senator was on the board along with two lawyers. The former city manager and a major labor leader worked together as committee heads. The local power structure in Peoria centers around one man, the head of a large bank, and one of his vice-presidents was on the library board.

The library in Peoria works closely with the local government. The librarian has breakfast once a week with the other city department heads, the mayor and the city manager. This gives them a chance to compare notes, and it helps to have the others realize that the library administration faces many of the same problems that they do. It establishes the librarian as a member of the governing clique and keeps him informed of the political climate. The librarian and his assistant are also active members of civic service clubs.

The first thing the library did was to invite the city council, the manager, and the mayor to inspect the building. Then the formal presentation was made to the city council for approval of the referendum date.

A special open house was held for the press and other news media representatives prior to the opening of the campaign. They were given a tour of the building and were so impressed with the library's case that from this came offers from two of the local television stations to do half-hour documentaries on the library's plight. A photographer donated his services to make photographs of the worst areas of the library for use in the brochures and other publicity.

Use of the professional advertising agency to organize and schedule publicity for the news media greatly facilitated the campaign. The news personnel appreciated the professional approach by someone who knew exactly what was wanted and how to do it and were impressed by the tour given them by the library. Consequently the library issue received editorial support from the newspaper and most of the radio and television stations.

Newspaper coverage consisted of feature articles on the library and some of the library personnel, news articles on the campaign and board actions, routine articles on new materials added to the library, film showings, and meetings. During the last phase of both campaigns the library ran large, eye-catching ads. The newspaper had an editorial and an editorial cartoon in support of the library bond issue.

Radio coverage was good also, with the library being the subject of one question-and-answer program where listeners call in. On another station they were given numerous two-minute interviews. The library was the subject of the Junior Chamber of Commerce's weekly program, and of course the library's own radio program boosted its cause.

As previously mentioned, the television coverage included two half-hour documentaries. The library had taped television "trailers" in prime time spots. They received the usual news coverage of the campaign, and editorial support.

A special library open house was also held for area labor leaders. This was well attended, and the library received editorial support from the labor newspaper. They were also endorsed by the Caterpillar Tractor Company's paper.

Flyers and brochures were used in both campaigns to a great extent, with wide distribution throughout the city. They were delivered door-to-door and placed on cars in shopping centers. In the first campaign posters and billboards were used, but they were found to be very expensive, and the second time the managers of the campaign decided to leave them out and spend the money on mass media advertising instead.

In the first campaign, 16 women worked with the mothers' clubs and the PTA's; they were responsible for speaking engagements, distribution of literature, arrangements for tours, and forming a telephone committee. Training sessions were held for the telephone committee. An estimated 30,000 telephone calls were made by the staff and the PTA calling committees. Girl Scouts lent a hand by assembling and stapling publicity materials.

The librarian and assistant librarian devoted much of their effort to speaking appearances, and a staff speakers' committee gave speeches whenever their schedules would permit. They had a standard half-hour talk and a ten-minute talk, complete with slides. Although many speeches were made to groups, formal endorsements were not sought. Such endorsements are against the national policies of many service organizations, and the librarian felt that their formal resolutions are of little actual value. The important thing was to convince the civic leaders and organization leaders of the need, and to get them on the library's side. A citizens' committee spent a lot of time organizing coffees in the first campaign.

The library staff had a committee for tours, and a standing offer was made to show anyone at any time the bad physical condition of the library, including the crumbling foundations in the basement. Well-attended open houses were held during each campaign.

The funds necessary to conduct the campaigns came from fine receipts. Costs were never totalled exactly, but the two campaigns together came to about $20,000. The librarian felt in retrospect that some money was spent unnecessarily on items from which a return was uncertain. Since the campaign was the informational, comprehensive type, aimed at the community as a whole, the library could not afford to overlook anything which might serve to reach a few more voters.

Arguments of the library backers centered on the fire hazard to life and property in the old building and its deteriorating physical condition. The crowded conditions (work space, book space, and user space), heavy student use, and limits to effective service caused by the 1897 building were also emphasized. The cost of building repair and maintenance and the pressing need for extensive repairs were pointed out. The desirability of the present site in terms of service to business and industry, safety for users at night, and proximity to downtown and bus lines was also explained. Some attention though not a great deal of emphasis, was given to the cost, in terms of amount per taxpayer or per $100 of assessed valuation.

Although the library board had been warned to expect it, they never met any organized opposition. The library was hurt during the first campaign by a widespread rumor that some branches would be closed if the issue passed. A policy statement was prepared by the board to combat this rumor, and another was issued as an answer to questions regarding the courthouse square as a possible location for the new building. Several letters appeared in the paper opposing the library referendum because of taxes. One pointed out that books can now be bought at any corner drugstore, and that the library could cut down its expenses by getting out of the audio-visual business.

In the second campaign a small group, led by a property owner whose land would be used by the new library, conducted a verbal campaign against the issue. These opponents did not feel that a new library was not needed. They felt that it shouldn't require the whole block and that it was not necessary for the public library to provide parking.

On election day the library, through the Junior Chamber of Commerce, offered rides to the polls. Although this service was not heavily used, it did provide more publicity. In some precincts the library had poll watchers and did telephoning to get a better turnout.

The Election

The April 14, 1964, library referendum to issue $2,850,000 public library building bonds was defeated by 16 votes. Since the outcome was so close, the library petitioned for a recount, which was held in June. The library won by one vote on the recount, but then a petition was entered by others for a second recount. The objectors contended that the first recount was held too soon after the results of the election and without giving them an opportunity to present their arguments. The library lost by eight votes in the second recount; however, the matter was given to the court for a ruling on 52 ballots which were objected to by one side or the other. In December the court decision gave the library a nine-vote defeat. The costs for the library's recount were paid from a solicited fund, with the three election judges donating half of their fee. The library learned one thing of value in the recount; over 200 "yes" votes had to be tossed out because the voter, with obvious intentions to vote for the library, had written "yes" in the box. Consequently, during the second campaign the literature did not say "Vote _yes_ for the library," but "Vote _for_ the new downtown library."

TABLE 1

VOTE ON A LIBRARY BOND ISSUE IN PEORIA

Election	Date	For	Against
First Election (Primary)	April 14, 1964	10,450	10,466
Recount	June 8, 1964	10,472	10,471
Recount	October 8, 1964	10,473	10,481
Court Decision	December 14, 1964	10,474	10,483
Second Election (General)	April 6, 1965	20,510	17,715

The turnouts for both the 1964 primary and the 1965 general elections were high, with a mean percentage of the registered voters voting at 47.4 in the first and 61.9 in the latter. In this respect the library board had achieved its purpose in choosing a general election date. The margin of defeat in the first election was slight, and in the second election, with greater turnout, the library's share of the vote increased by four percentage points.

Of the 17 lowest turnout precincts in Peoria, 12 were in the high favorability category. Of the 17 highest turnout precincts, 16 were in the high favorability category. This would indicate that in Peoria, at least, precincts with either very high or very low turnout tended to be favorable to the library.

The Second Campaign

A few changes were made in the conduct of the second campaign. The major difference was an increased emphasis on a thorough coverage of each precinct. A forceful woman, active in civic affairs, assumed charge of the drive. The librarian gave less time to the campaign and more to the affairs of the library, while the assistant librarian worked closely with the citizens' committee. Due to the urging of the lay chairman of the second campaign the members of the board, who had left the conduct of the first campaign to others, took responsibility for the city ward organizations. Individual staff members still took an active part in the campaign.

During the second campaign, money was spent more on the mass media than some of the other methods, such as posters. Not as much time was spent talking to clubs, or to special coffee groups; it was thought that these people were already convinced. The library tried to be more positive on reasons for the new library. Pictures were used to illustrate the need. There was also a decision to schedule publicity efforts a bit later than in the first campaign. Part of the reason for this was that a firehouse bond issue was scheduled in February.

During the first campaign the library and the fire department had worked together to get out the vote, even sharing speakers' platforms and slide equipment at clubs. The fire equipment bond referendum had passed in 1964, and the firehouse bond referendum in February, 1965. The library got a great deal of support from fire officials in the second try; the department made public statements labeling the old building a fire hazard.

A steering committee aided the lay chairman, coordinating efforts, making policies, and contacting people. Under the board members as ward chairmen, precinct committeemen were found and block captains appointed. Lists of registered voters in each precinct were reprinted for the workers. Better brochures were made up, and the distribution door-to-door was thorough. Much publicity was directed at teaching the public how to vote correctly--an X instead of "yes."

An open house was held at the library just two weeks before the election to celebrate the anniversary of 100 years of library service in Peoria. The event received a lot of publicity.

In the year between the two referendums, a suburban residential area had been annexed to the city. One of the promises made to the residents when they voted on annexation was that library service would be extended to them immediately, and that a branch library would be built in the area as soon as possible. Indeed library service was the first city service to be extended to them. Prior to the second election, these new residents were registering as library borrowers at a fast pace, and by the month before the election 3,300 had registered. The precincts in this area all carried the library issue by large margins, and it was their margins that served in fact to carry the city.

The only change in the ballot on the second election was that the estimate of the cost had risen $350,000. The library benefited from the excitement in the revitalization of Peoria; many of these projects had become a reality in the year between or were under way. This, plus the energetic campaign and the addition of the annexed suburban voters, helped carry the issue.

CHAPTER V

PRELIMINARY DECISIONS

Before the librarians and boards in Champaign, Quincy, and Peoria decided to finance new buildings by means of bond issues, several decisions had already been made. Although each phase of the process is not as sharply defined as the following description might indicate, the same steps were taken in about the same order by each library. The differences were more of degree than of kind.

The first problem which the librarians and the boards faced was bringing into focus an awareness that expanded facilities were needed for the library. Recognition of this need was followed by a decision, supported by expert outside advice, to build a new structure. Finally, alternative methods of financing the construction were investigated, and the decision was made to propose a bond issue requiring a referendum to be approved by a majority of those voting on the proposition.

Recognition of Need

In 1963, a point in time when the three libraries were facing this need for additional space, half of the public libraries in Illinois serving populations greater than 25,000 were housed in buildings constructed before 1921. Of these buildings, one-third had been constructed before 1900.[1]

Illinois' need for replacing old library buildings is not unique since a recent analysis of national statistics suggests that "some 38 percent of existing library buildings are more than 40 years old."[2] The bond issue campaigns that were planned in these three cities were to provide money to replace buildings constructed before 1900. Quincy was the oldest, occupied in 1889. The Champaign building was erected in 1896, and the Peoria library in 1897. These three cities, then, faced a problem which is common to many cities in Illinois, that of having a library housed in an old, unsatisfactory building.

The inadequacy of all three buildings was becoming evident through increased maintenance costs. Space for readers, staff, and books was insufficient. The catalog department in Quincy, as well as the film library, were located in the high-ceilinged basement beneath heating pipes. Champaign was shelving books in fireplaces, and Peoria had expanded into a remodeled garage next door. Such facilities made curtailing existing services a possibility. Adding new services was difficult because of lack of space.

A need for expanded facilities was evident to the Quincy Daily Herald as far back as 1920, when it stated in an editorial that "some day in the not very distant future Quincy must provide a new library building."[3] The need was partially met by small additions during the 1920's and again during the 1940's. A city plan for Quincy, developed by Harland Bartholomew and Associates in 1960, suggested combining the library with a civic and cultural center.[4] By the end of 1963, the library board had recognized the need in more concrete terms by purchasing a piece of property immediately east of the present building and by hiring a building consultant.

In Champaign, the need for expanded facilities was recognized during the mid-50's when Simon-Rettberg, local architects, were asked to submit plans for expansion of the current site. A community survey was also conducted in 1957, with conclusions quite critical of library service in Champaign being drawn by the investigators. Champaign began to accumulate money for the proposed construction in 1963 when a building improvement fund was established.

Peoria's library board officially recognized a need for expanded facilities in 1955 when the present librarian was hired with an understanding that he was to undertake a solution to the building needs. A long-range library plan was approved by the city's planning department.

Once the need for more space and for changes in the library's quarters was recognized, the libraries had several alternatives open. First, they could remodel the old building or they could build a new building. If a new building was decided upon, its location would involve still another decision. Should the same location be used, or should a new site be obtained? Finally, the librarians and their boards could choose to do nothing for a time.

Although the libraries may appear to have chosen the last alternatives, at least for a few years, this time lag was more likely used to achieve a consensus of board opinion. Some members of the Champaign board realized quite early that an entirely new building was the most sensible solution, and they were waiting for an opportunity to convince other members. When Quincy and Peoria entered the active phase, it was with the backing, at least on the surface, of the entire board. While the librarians and their staffs were busy with the daily operation of the library and with other administrative tasks, members of the boards were also occupied with other, personal activities. None of them could devote their entire energies to solving the building needs of the library.

Seeking Advice

All three libraries investigated the possibility of remodeling the existing building before deciding on a new structure. The building consultants in Peoria demolished this course of action by stating flatly that they would only recommend a new building. If an addition was built, the library should move into the addition while tearing down the old building. Quincy's building consultant recommended that the architect be instructed to draw two sets of plans, one based on remodeling, and one on a new building. After receiving reports on the problems involved in remodeling their building, the board was willing to consider a new structure.

As in Quincy, several members of the Champaign board hoped that remodeling, or remodeling with an addition, would be feasible. Joseph L. Wheeler, who was retained to do a library survey and to make recommendations about site selection and possible remodeling, made a report to the board clearly favoring a new building.

When expert opinion ruled out the desirability of remodeling the old buildings, the librarians and their boards were left with only one real alternative--to build a new library. Perhaps they could have searched for another building to remodel, but this course of action does not seem to have been seriously considered in any of the three cities. With the choice made for a new building, an allied possibility arose, that of selecting a new site.

Both Quincy and Peoria remained with their old sites but for different reasons. Champaign chose a new site. Although the librarian and board in Peoria were relatively satisfied with the old site, they did search for better alternative locations in the downtown area. After exhausting the possibilities, the board chose to move ahead with plans to enlarge the old site. While the Quincy board made tentative investigations of other sites, these were not examined in a systematic fashion. Even before the building consultant was retained, the Quincy library had purchased property adjoining its present site. The board felt some commitment to the old location, where the library had always been, and gave less emphasis to this "decision point" than did Peoria and Champaign.

The Champaign board found that they would not have enough space on the first floor even if the site could be enlarged by acquiring several adjacent lots. They also wanted to move nearer the downtown area in a more visible location.

Various kinds of technical experts are available to library boards and librarians who are planning a new building. Potential sources (which were not utilized extensively by these cities) include their local planning boards and the Illinois State Library. The Quincy city plan, for example, was developed by a planning firm located outside the city without consultation with the librarian and board. Consequently the librarian and board did not adopt the inadequate site suggested in the plan. Lois Bewley has discussed the relationship between library planners and city planners, suggesting that a potential exists for far greater cooperation between the two groups.[5]

Studies of community opinion and attitude toward the library can be valuable to a board. Conveniently, Quincy was selected to be the subject of a study by George Fry Associates of the image of the public library to the general public.[6] Using a non-probability sample, the investigators found that people thought highly of the library. The Champaign board commissioned two faculty members from the University of Illinois Library School to survey the community's opinion of the library. The use made of public opinion surveys varied between the cities. In none of the three did the survey of public opinion investigate potential reactions to voting for a bond issue.

The role of the building consultant also varied between the cities. The consultant to Quincy, Robert Rohlf, was primarily concerned with giving advice on alternatives which were open and on working with the architect and the librarian in preparing plans. In Champaign the consultant, Lester Stoffel, refined the written building programs and advised on strategy in the bond issue campaign. The Peoria Public Library did not retain a building consultant, but a local advertising firm was hired to help plan the bond issue campaign.

Choosing Methods of Financing

Several alternatives are open to the public library faced with the need of financing a new or expanded building.

These alternatives may be grouped into two areas: support from gifts or grants or support from local tax funds.

Gifts have traditionally been an important source of funds for public libraries, from the Carnegie Foundation to civic-minded citizens of the local community. Since the 1950's, grants from the Federal government through the Library Services and Construction Act have been an important source of funds for the construction or expansion of public libraries.

The public library standards, adopted by the Public Library Association, recommended that the major financial support for public libraries should come from the community served by the library, since the library provides a service that affects public policy.[7]

Local financing can take the form of accumulating funds or issuing bonds. Either method is permitted by Illinois law, but the accumulation of funds does not require a referendum. The library board, with the approval of the city government, may set aside tax monies over a period of years in a building fund. Before it can secure approval to accumulate money the board must present plans showing how the money will be used.

If the library board chooses to ask for a bond referendum, they must obtain the city council's approval to hold the election. A majority of those voting in the election is necessary for passage. Bonds issued under this procedure are a general obligation of the city.

Part of a library's construction costs could be met by another agency in return for space in the building. This might include a civic building, cultural center, or library system headquarters.

In all three cities studied the library board applied for funds under Title II of LSCA. Their requests were approved contingent upon passage of the bond issue. Gifts were not contemplated as a major source of funds by any of the boards, but those offered were not, of course, refused.

In Champaign the board secured city council approval in 1963 to begin accumulating funds. Since this levy was only yielding between $15,000 and $20,000 yearly, many years would have had to pass before Champaign could finance a new library by this method.

One potential source of funds was not attempted in Peoria and Quincy. These buildings were being planned while library systems were being established in their regions. Both were designated as headquarters, and building plans were developed accordingly, but money was not available from the system to cover any part of the cost. Champaign would have received some construction money from the Lincoln Trail Libraries System.

The major source of funds for each of the new buildings was to be the proceeds from general obligation bonds. Thus a referendum was required by law. Once approval of a date was secured from the city council, the boards focused their attention on the organization and conduct of the campaigns.

References to Chapter V

[1] This information was obtained from the annual statistics number of Illinois Libraries for 1964. Missing information was obtained from the numbers for 1965, 1966, and 1967. Of 43 libraries in Illinois serving populations of over 25,000, 8 were housed in buildings constructed before 1900, 16 in buildings constructed between 1901 and 1920, 16 in buildings constructed after 1920, and 3 in buildings whose age could not be determined.

[2] "Public Libraries," Illinois Libraries, 50 (February, 1968), 183. Reprinted from State and Local Public Facility Needs and Financing, a study prepared for the Subcommittee on Economic Progress of the Joint Economic Committee, Congress of the United States; Public Facility Needs (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966), I.

[3] Quincy Daily Herald, Feb. 3, 1920, as quoted in campaign publicity.

[4] Harland Bartholomew and Associates, A Report Upon the 1960 Official Comprehensive Plan, Quincy, Illinois (St. Louis: 1960), p. 34.

[5] Lois M. Bewley, "The Public Library and the Planning Agency," ALA Bulletin, 61 (September, 1967), 968-974.

[6] George Fry Associates, "Community Image of the Free Public Library, Quincy, Illinois," unpublished report dated October 29, 1964.

[7] Public Library Association. Minimum Standards for Public Library Systems, 1966 (Chicago: American Library Association, 1967), p. 19.

CHAPTER VI

PLANNING AND CONDUCTING THE CAMPAIGNS

Planning the Campaign

Since Illinois state law permits the vote on a bond issue to be conducted as part of either a regular or a special election, each library had the opportunity to choose its own time. Champaign chose to hold its referendum as a special election. The librarian and board were following the advice of their building consultant whose preference was for a "quiet campaign" theme. Such a campaign would be primarily an attempt to urge friends of the library to vote in a special election, and would further hope that opponents might not bother to vote. Champaign was reluctant to join in a general city election which they feared might feature a bitter fight between candidates for the city council. In addition, Champaign wanted to select a date when university personnel would not have scattered to other places for the summer. They also hoped to use the PTA organizations to reach potentially favorable voters. Thus a date in June, 1967, was selected.

Library board members in Peoria and Quincy felt that a special election, in the opinion of some voters, smacks of underhandedness. The time chosen, while favorable to the library, might be inconvenient to many citizens. Indeed, a special election might antagonize some. Holding the vote in connection with the general election would permit the larger number of voters appearing at such elections to express their opinion on the library bonds.

Evidence favoring either special or general elections is spotty. In a study of turnout for school elections, Carter and Savard found that higher turnout was often associated with a defeat of the financial issue. They suggest that if the additional voters are favorable then higher turnout need not be feared.[1] If their conclusions are applicable to voting behavior on library bond issue elections, they provide a suggestion that the library proposing a bond issue in a general election should attempt to make certain that voters who favor the bond issue do cast their ballots. However, a study by Stone of local referendums concluded that because the high turnout electorate consists predominantly of people inactive in civic affairs and because the attitudes and voting inclinations of these inactivists are unstable, election outcomes are not predictable on the basis of size of turnout.[2] Since the high turnout referendum necessarily involves participation by those who are usually inactive and almost always uninformed and whose attitudes are malleable, a concerted effort must be made to reach these people with clearly stated appeals.

The Quincy board gave an additional reason for preferring a general election to a special election. Not only would a larger proportion of citizens be likely to vote in the general election, but the taxpayers would be saved the cost of the special election. The board could place itself in the position of being extremely cost-conscious, while at the same time asking for higher taxes.

In addition to choosing the type of election and the date for the election, decisions must be made concerning the precise role of the librarian, the board, and citizen representatives in the campaign. The Quincy board sought as campaign co-chairmen two men who had worked on a successful sewer bond campaign several years before. After these men withdrew about two months before the election, a third lay person was selected to head the campaign as executive secretary. When she resigned because of illness, another, younger, woman was appointed. After the two co-chairmen withdrew and committees were set up, the board, librarian, and committee chairmen acted as a steering committee for the campaign.

Champaign's campaign organization was more clearly pyramidal with the librarian and one member of the board at the top, acting as co-chairmen. They utilized members of the Friends of the Library to serve as campaign workers. Most of the board members did not participate actively in the campaign. Of the three cities, Peoria's first campaign best represents the librarian-run campaign, and board non-involvement. The librarian and his assistant directed the campaign with some help from lay people and especially from the advertising agency. The board, in the first campaign, did not take an active role.

These variations in the organizational structure of the campaign, with differing degrees of lay involvement, suggest the question of the proper role of the librarian and library board in such a situation. The librarian and board, if they are too actively involved, can be accused of trying to put something over on the community, or at least of being self-seeking. On the other hand, a librarian and board who remain behind the scenes, letting a group of citizens appear to be asking for a favorable vote, can give the impression of responding to a need for a new building which is expressed by the experts--the librarian and the board--and shared by members of the community. Although the information collected in these case studies is only suggestive, the newspaper accounts give the impression, reinforced by the description of the campaign organization, that in these three cities, the voters would be likely to conclude that the librarians and board themselves, and not the public, were asking for a new building and were suggesting the bond issue as the best means for financing the construction.

As they did in preparing the building programs and building plans, librarians in the three cities made use of expert advice when planning the bond issue campaign. In all cases the librarian did some reading about bond issue campaigns in other communities. The librarian in Quincy also sought help from the state library and advice from librarians who had been through similar campaigns, including the librarian in Peoria. Champaign made use of the experience of their building consultant in planning their campaign strategy. While Quincy retained the services of a local person to develop publicity materials, especially for presentation to the city council, Peoria hired a local advertising firm which aided in developing brochures and in handling publicity on radio and television.

Conducting the Campaign

There are two matters that must be settled before a campaign actually begins. The first is whether the approach will be primarily an attempt to inform voters that a need exists or an attempt to persuade them to vote for the bond issue. A purely informational campaign would present the facts and let them serve as proof of the community's need. A persuasive campaign would attempt to influence the voters through emotional appeals, relying heavily on an assumption that the public is already generally favorable toward the public library. An informational campaign could be pursued over a period of months, or even years, before moving into the final phase with an appeal for funds. Both approaches were combined in varying degrees in these three campaigns. Champaign used some facts but based most of their efforts on the persuasive appeal. Peoria rested its case on the facts with an addition of some emotional appeal in the second campaign. Quincy combined the two approaches.

The second aspect of campaign execution that must be settled involves the question of deciding toward whom the campaign will be directed. Both Quincy and Peoria chose to aim their campaigns toward everyone in the city. In Quincy, the library forces worked with the local newspaper to obtain coverage. They organized volunteers to distribute leaflets door-to-door throughout the city. Peoria also saturated the city with handbills and, in their second, successful campaign, organized precinct captains who supervised block workers. Champaign's library forces were committed to a selective campaign, but it did not work because they failed to define clearly what groups were to receive attention.

The political expertise of the library boards appeared to vary in the three cities. Measuring political expertise by the political offices which board members held, the Peoria board was most expert, followed by Quincy. While the Peoria board included a state senator, and the Quincy board included one alderman and the assitant superintendent of schools (who had worked closely with successful school financial campaigns), the Champaign board was comprised of citizens who, while influential, were not politically oriented. Although the mayors and some council members in Champaign and Quincy favored passage of the library bond issue, they did not campaign actively for it. Champaign city officials were pessimistic from the start about the bond issue's chances for success.

In using local communications media, pro-library forces in each city adapted their use to the particular exigencies of each situation. The library campaigns involved submitting material to the local newspapers which reported the library's needs with pictures, feature articles, and news items. The newspaper coverage culminated in paid advertisements a few days before the election (featuring the building plans in Quincy), and in editorials urging a vote for the library bonds. In Quincy, as in Peoria's second campaign, there was no paid advertising until a few days before the election. Peoria forces sought, and obtained, the support of the local labor newspaper. The house organ of a major Peoria industry also urged passage of the library bonds.

Local radio stations were supplied with spot announcements in Peoria and Quincy. Quincy made use of public service time. Since Champaign stations serve an area much beyond the city, radio was not used there. During the last few weeks of both campaigns, Peoria devoted its weekly program on community issues to the need for a new library.

The expense of television time limited the use of this medium by Champaign and Quincy. When opposition arose in

Quincy, library supporters apparently curtailed their use of television because the stations would have to give equal time to the opposition. Champaign felt they should not spend money for television time since voters might criticize the expense involved.

Very early in its campaign, the Peoria library held an open house for the news media. Two television stations later made arrangements for half-hour documentaries on the library's need. The Peoria library also received editorial support from the three local stations. Peoria's spot announcements were prepared by the advertising agency which helped to plan the campaign.

Various other techniques were used, supplementing radio, newspapers, and television to inform citizens of the library's need, urging them to vote for the bond issue proposal. Brochures were distributed door-to-door in Quincy. Workers were asked to deliver the brochure personally to the resident, to urge a favorable vote, and to answer any questions the resident might have. Champaign used a number of mailing lists as a basis for distributing leaflets door-to-door, having learned from their experience in the first campaign that a man hired to place leaflets under windshield wipers in shopping centers did not do the job as thoroughly as expected.

The campaigns included speeches by the librarians and board members to organized groups, such as church organizations and service groups. Quincy also made use of students from the local college who undertook many speaking assignments. The librarian in Peoria felt the speeches did little to convince voters and, although the lay chairman in the first campaign felt that speeches did help, they were de-emphasized in Peoria's second campaign. This second campaign was planned to build on the momentum of the first, a point which is discussed in more detail at the end of Chapter IV.

Endorsements of the bond issue were sought in Quincy from local groups. Names of these groups were publicized late in the campaign. In Peoria, no attempt was made to obtain formal resolutions of support from local organizations.

Informal coffee hours were planned in Quincy and Champaign. Although plans in Quincy originally called for a coffee hour on every block in the city, the number was drastically reduced because not enough women could be found who were willing to provide coffee and premises. The Friends of the Library in Champaign planned the coffee hours, using them as a means of distributing postcards to each person attending. These cards were to be addressed and mailed to friends, urging a vote for the library.

Plans were made in all three cities for citizens to visit the library to see for themselves why a new building was needed. The Quincy open house was not well attended. Champaign used a local newspaper columnist as a speaker at its open house to attract people. In addition to its open house for news media personnel, held well in advance of the opening of its campaign, Peoria issued a standing offer to provide tours. Despite the small number of people who took advantage of the invitation, planners of the campaign felt this proved the library's willingness to display evidence of their need for a new building.

How were these campaigns financed? Peoria retained an advertising firm (which charged only costs), and all three campaigns used printed leaflets and some paid advertising. Precisely comparable figures are impossible to obtain. Quincy depended on donated services and money given to pay for printing and for advertisements. Peoria and Champaign used revenue in amounts equal to fine receipts. In all three cities the library supporters were unwilling to use clearly identifiable tax income to pay for the campaign. Financing such a campaign, with its attempt to persuade people to vote for an issue rather than to provide information on both sides of a question, presents librarians and their boards with an ethical, if not a legal, problem. None of the cities conducted a separate fund-raising campaign to obtain money to pay for the bond issue campaign. Peoria, however, appealed successfully to its supporters for money to finance a recount. Although precise comparisons of campaign expenditures are not possible or justifiable, it is clear that Peoria spent more than Champaign or Quincy. But the size of its library operation and Peoria's larger population go far toward explaining this difference.

While the way the campaigns were organized and carried through suggests the amount of work which may go into even an unsuccessful campaign, this is only part of the story. The campaigns raised many issues, and the arguments given by the proponents illustrate how the library forces planned to persuade people to vote "yes" on the library bond issue.

All campaigns stressed the inadequacy of the existing library buildings, pointing out that expanded services were not possible in the old quarters. Champaign used national library standards to suggest the amount of space they needed. Quincy pointed to the convenient downtown location of its present site and suggested that alternative sites would merely increase the money needed for the project. Plans in Quincy called for erecting the new building and occupying it before the old library was razed. Thus service would not be interrupted for long and the cost of moving into temporary quarters would be avoided.

Peoria tied its campaign to plans for rebuilding the city core, arguing that the public library should not be left behind while the downtown district was being rebuilt. Peoria, like the other libraries, also appealed to people's desire to have good educational facilities available for their children. Citing its high use by students, Peoria forces argued that the library was very important in the education of the city's youth. The city also needed an adequate main library to serve its branch libraries properly. In addition, proponents stressed the small tax increase which the bond issue would entail.

As the pro-library campaigns intensified, opposition developed in all three cities in large enough measure to contribute to the defeat of the referendums. Unlike Champaign and Quincy, opposition in Peoria was not organized. It became known largely through letters to the local newspaper and by means of rumors, one to the effect that certain branches would be closed if the referendum passed. Sources of information on the Peoria campaign, as in the other cities, indicated that the opposition was not indicative of animosity toward the library but rather of an unwillingness to raise taxes.

A conservative member of the Champaign City Council voted against giving the library permission to hold its referendum. The councilman's opposition provided a rallying point for conservative elements, joined by some real estate owners, who opposed a tax increase. Their opposition was also based on the site chosen for the new library, which was critized as too expensive, and on the use of a Federal grant to supplement local funds. Lack of adequate parking on, or near, the proposed site was also a major criticism of opponents.

Less than a month before the referendum date in Champaign, residents received property tax bills containing increases over the previous year. This produced a large group of voters with little sympathy for any appeal, no matter how worthy, that would further raise their taxes.

Although Federal funds were planned for the Quincy project, their use does not appear to have been an issue. The opposition was focused on the existing building which, it was argued, should be preserved to maintain the appearance of the public square, for which it forms a corner. A local industrialist, active in local and state cultural activities, made his opposition to the library bond issue public less than three weeks before election day in handbills distributed door-to-door throughout the city. The handbills also pointed out that the library board had not investigated any alternative to tax funds. They had not asked local people and foundations for money to help in building a new library. The board argued that they would accept gifts but felt that, as a public institution, the library should derive the bulk of its funds from local tax income.

The opposition in Quincy also suggested that the board had not provided for adequate discussion of the proposal by the people. This reasoning also appeared in Champaign. Although the boards had been working to solve the library's needs for several years and news items had appeared in local papers, this does not necessarily mean that the general public was aware of either the library's need or the board's plans. Column inches of publicity are a very inadequate measure of public perception on an issue. Since no surveys of public knowledge or attitudes were conducted on the library issues before the elections, it it impossible to use objective data to examine the extent to which citizens were aware of the libraries' needs and the boards' proposals to meet those needs. Given the low level of information which many voters have in presidential elections, it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that some voters could feel they had not been kept informed.

References to Chapter VI

[1] Richard F. Carter and William G. Savard, Influence of Voter Turnout on School Bond and Tax Elections (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, "Cooperative Research Monograph," No. 5; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1961).

[2] Clarence N. Stone, "Local Referendums: An Alternative to the Alienated-Voter Model," Public Opinion Quarterly, 29 (Summer, 1965), 213-222.

CHAPTER VII

THE ELECTIONS

For the three public libraries, election day was the culmination of the efforts which began, in some cases, several years eariler. The campaign was then over and the outcome was in the voter's hands. As part of the information provided during their campaigns, the Champaign and Quincy libraries pointed out that all residents of the city were eligible to vote on the library issue even if they had not registered. In Champaign's special election, very few people who were not registered did vote.

Despite the efforts which had been made during the campaigns and during the planning period before the campaign, the Champaign, Quincy, and the first Peoria bond issue referendums were defeated. Table 2 shows the total vote for each of the three defeats. The second, successful election in Peoria is also included for comparison. In calculating the turnout we have assumed, based on the few non-registered people who voted in Champaign, that the registration figures for the election closest to the library election provide an

TABLE 2

VOTER TURNOUT IN FOUR ELECTIONS

City	Type of Election	Total Vote	Mean Turn-out (%)	Median Turn-out (%)	Range in Precincts Lowest (%)	Range in Precincts Highest (%)
Quincy*	general	16,097	66.8	68.6	51.5	84.4
Champaign	special	4,621	23.2	23.4	5.0	41.5
Peoria (first)	general (primary)	21,957	47.4	46.5	21.4	76.9
Peoria (second)	general	39,400	61.9	63.1	35.8	84.9

*One precinct is excluded because of incomplete data.

accurate enough estimate of the potential turnout that could be expected. Using the registration figures for each precinct, and the total vote for that precinct, the turnout for each precinct was calculated. The differences in turnout between the two Peoria elections may be due to normal differences in turnout between a primary election (the first) and a general election (the second).

In an extensive study of voter turnout for school bond and tax elections, Carter and Savard found that higher turnout is associated with defeated issues. They conclude, however, that higher turnout should not be feared by supporters if the new increments of votes come from people favorably disposed to the issue.[1] Applying this reasoning to the Peoria elections, the only city in which we can compare two library referendums, the higher turnout in the second election appears to have consisted of voters favorable to the library. Similar comparisons could be made between various kinds of issues in a city if one is willing to assume that voting behavior on the various issues would be similar. Analysis of precinct voting in several kinds of referendums might be a useful preliminary exercise in predicting turnout for a future library election.

In each of these four elections the areas of highest turnout were those inhabited chiefly by professional people and white collar workers. Analyzing their results, Peoria library supporters concluded that turnout was also higher in areas where door-to-door campaigning had been done. Consequently they did more of this, over larger areas, in their second campaign.

If the elections in Quincy and Peoria follow the pattern of other local elections, turnout for the library issue was lower than turnout for the other issues. Indeed, examination of the total votes for other issues indicates that the pattern held. It seems likely that a library can decrease this "ballot fatigue" in an election in which it must compete with other issues by a concerted door-to-door campaign designed to make people aware of the library referendum. This technique would allow inter-personal, face-to-face communication to take place between the citizen and the library supporter who explains why the citizen's vote is needed for the library. The importance of informal discussion in persuading voters is described by Boskoff and Zeigler, among others.[2]

There are at least four ways in which those who are planning a bond issue campaign can have some effect on turnout. Although we have not discussed it in relation to these issues, it seems reasonable to suggest that turnout would be higher if the issue is well-publicized. Turnout can also be influenced by the kind of election of which the issue is a part since higher turnout is generally associated with major general elections and a lower turnout with less major--we hesitate to say minor--special elections.

The precincts with low turnout in Champaign and Peoria were those in Negro areas and also in "blue collar" but white sections of the city. The pattern was less clear in Quincy where the small number of Negro residents is split among several precincts.

Turning from a discussion of who voted to how they voted, Table 3 illustrates the range of favorability between the four elections and within each election. The range was calculated on the basis of the total "yes" and "no" votes for each precinct. Next, the mean was obtained from the percent "yes" summed for the precincts in each election. Since data were not complete for two Quincy precincts these were omitted from the calculations on which Table 3 is based.

TABLE 3

PERCENT VOTING "YES" IN FOUR ELECTIONS*

City	Mean Percent Yes Vote	Range in Precincts Lowest	Range in Precincts Highest
Quincy**	38.2	26.6	71.2
Champaign	24.3	0.0	65.0
Peoria (first)	49.1	20.8	87.0
Peoria (second)	53.1	26.8	82.8

*Calculated by precinct from the total of yes and no votes.

**Two precincts are excluded because of incomplete data.

Clearly the range of favorability was great, not only between but also within, elections. The means for the two Peoria elections show that the issue failed on the first attempt by a narrow margin but succeeded on the second try by a slightly higher margin.

On the basis of these results the four elections can be ranked as follows, from most favorable to least favorable: 1) Peoria's second election, 2) Peoria's first election, 3) Quincy, and 4) Champaign. Several factors may account for this ranking. The campaigns in Peoria may have been more decisive, better planned, and better organized, thus permitting the library's need to speak for itself more clearly. Secondly, the rank appears to reflect the greater amount of opposition manifested in the Quincy and Champaign situations. Possibly, although our data shed little light on this point, there may also have been less latent opposition to increased taxes in Peoria. Finally, the ranking by favorability of these three elections may reflect the amount of political expertise available to the library supporters in the campaigns.

Turning to the areas of the city which were most favorable, we find that these were usually areas where "white collar" and professional people lived. Lacking adequate up-to-date socio-economic data, such as that provided by the decennial census, we have relied on characterizations made by people in the community who described the nature of these precincts for us. In Champaign and Peoria, areas inhabited by Negroes were also among the most favorable. These conclusions support those of Garrison who made a more rigorous ecological analysis of library bond issue elections in Seattle and Akron.[3]

Inspection of precinct election results in Peoria and Champaign suggested that a relationship might exist between level of turnout and level of favorability. A frequency count of the precincts with high percentages of "yes" votes included both those precincts with high percentages of voter turnout and those with low voter turnout. The least favorable precincts seemed to fall nearer the mean of percent registered voters voting.

To test whether this apparent relationship could be accounted for by chance, Chi-square was used.[4] When applied to the precinct results in Champaign and Quincy, the Chi-square obtained was not statistically significant. Any relationship between turnout and favorability in these two elections could be accounted for by chance. When applied to the Peoria election results, however, the results were significant at the .01 level.

Given the limited scope of this study, it is difficult to assign much importance to these results. However, since the precincts with high voter turnout were those located in higher socio-economic residential areas and the precincts with low turnout were in areas inhabited chiefly by Negroes, the Peoria election supports Garrison's studies in Seattle and Akron. The three factors--socio-economic rank, voter turnout, and favorability--seem to be interrelated.

References to Chapter VII

[1] Richard F. Carter and William G. Savard, Influence of Voter Turnout on School Bond and Tax Elections (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, "Cooperative Research Monograph," No. 5; Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1961), pp. 20-22.

[2] Alvin Boskoff and Harmon Zeigler, Voting Patterns in a Local Election (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1964), pp. 85-88.

[3] Guy Garrison, Seattle Voters and Their Public Library ("Research Series," No. 2; Springfield, Illinois: Illinois State Library, 1961), pp. 73-75, and his "Voting on a Library Bond Issue: Two Elections in Akron, Ohio, 1961 and 1962," Library Quarterly, 33 (July 1963), 229-241.

[4] Hubert M. Blalock, Social Statistics (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960), pp. 212-221.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This report describes the lengthy process which these librarians and their boards went through, beginning with recognition that the library needed modernized facilities and ending with bond issue referendum elections. In Quincy and Champaign, the bond issue proposals were defeated, while in Peoria the bond issue was approved on the second try and the new library has since been built.

The generalized process outlined in the flow chart in this chapter is an attempt to represent the experiences in all three cities. The chart summarizes the direction of our earlier discussion by beginning with the decision of the library board that the physical condition of the library building needs improvement. This is the earliest point at which the librarian and board use the services of a variety of technical advisors. Once a decision has been made to formulate a building program, the board makes decisions on retention of the old building, the possibility of a new site, and method of financing. If a bond issue is to be sought, then decisions on the emphasis, organization, and conduct of the campaign are made. Differences in the way each step was handled for the three libraries suggest that there are recognizable differences between successful and unsuccessful campaigns.

Three decision points on the charts appear to be especially critical because other events follow from them. Once a decision has been made to seek financing through a bond issue requiring approval of the voters, the library is faced with the following decisions: 1) the direction its campaign for support will take, 2) the date of the vote, and 3) the emphasis the campaign is to have, whether informational, persuasive, or a combination of both.

Two consequences follow from these decisions. The conduct of the campaign is influenced by the date, the emphasis, and the direction. The committee organization for the campaign is also related to these prior decisions. One example is the question of whether comprehensive door-to-door canvassing will be emphasized rather than contact with selected voters only.

FIGURE I: Chart 1

DECISION FLOW CHART FOR LIBRARY BOND REFERENDUMS

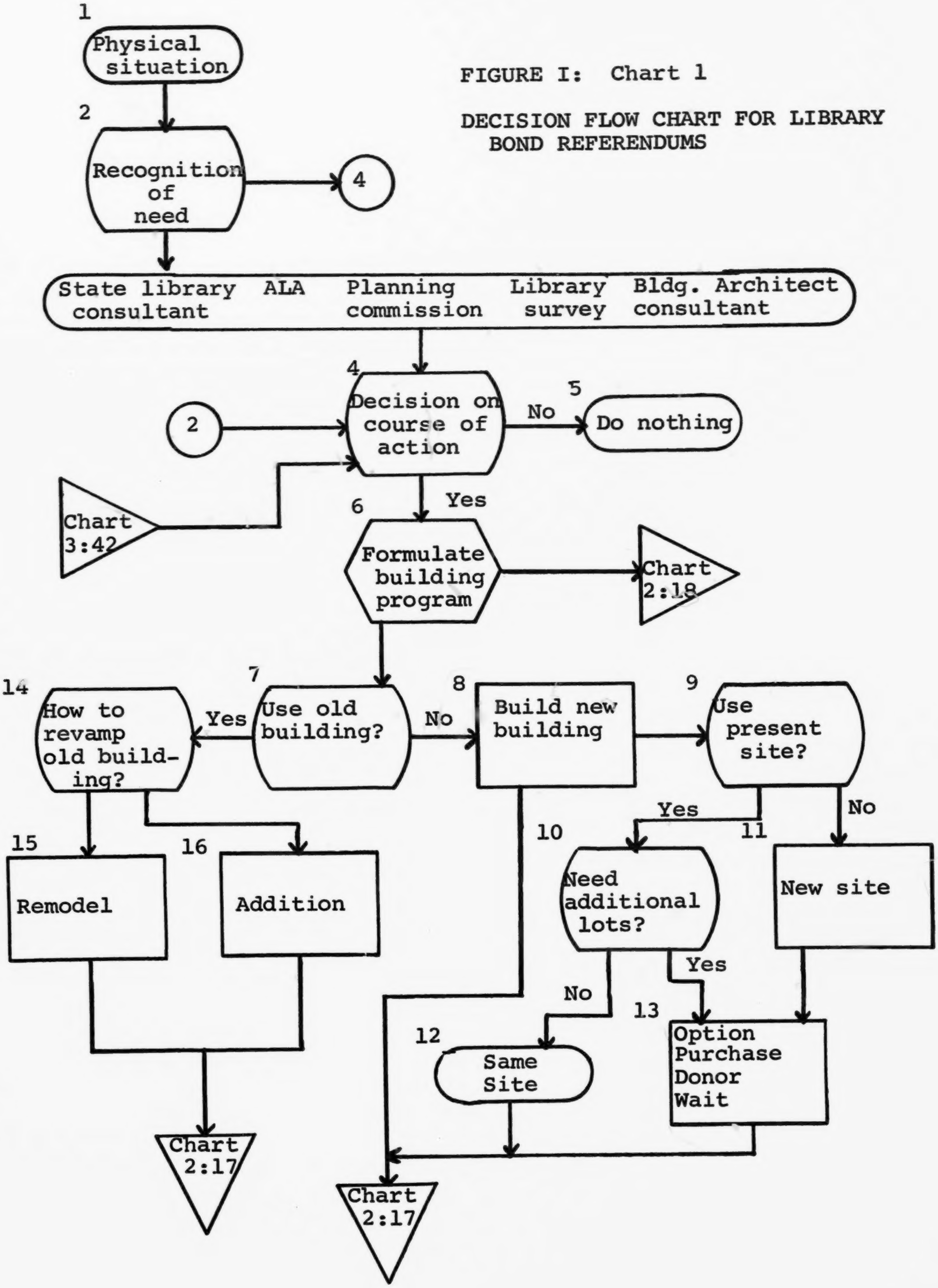
1
Physical situation
2
Recognition of need
4
State library consultant
ALA
Planning commission
Library survey
Bldg. Architect consultant
4
Decision on course of action
2
No
5
Do nothing
Chart 3:42
Yes
6
Formulate building program
Chart 2:18
14
How to revamp old building?
Yes
7
Use old building?
No
8
Build new building
9
Use present site?
Yes
No
10
11
15
Remodel
16
Addition
Need additional lots?
New site
No
Yes
13
12
Same Site
Option
Purchase
Donor
Wait
Chart 2:17
Chart 2:17

FIGURE I:
Chart 2

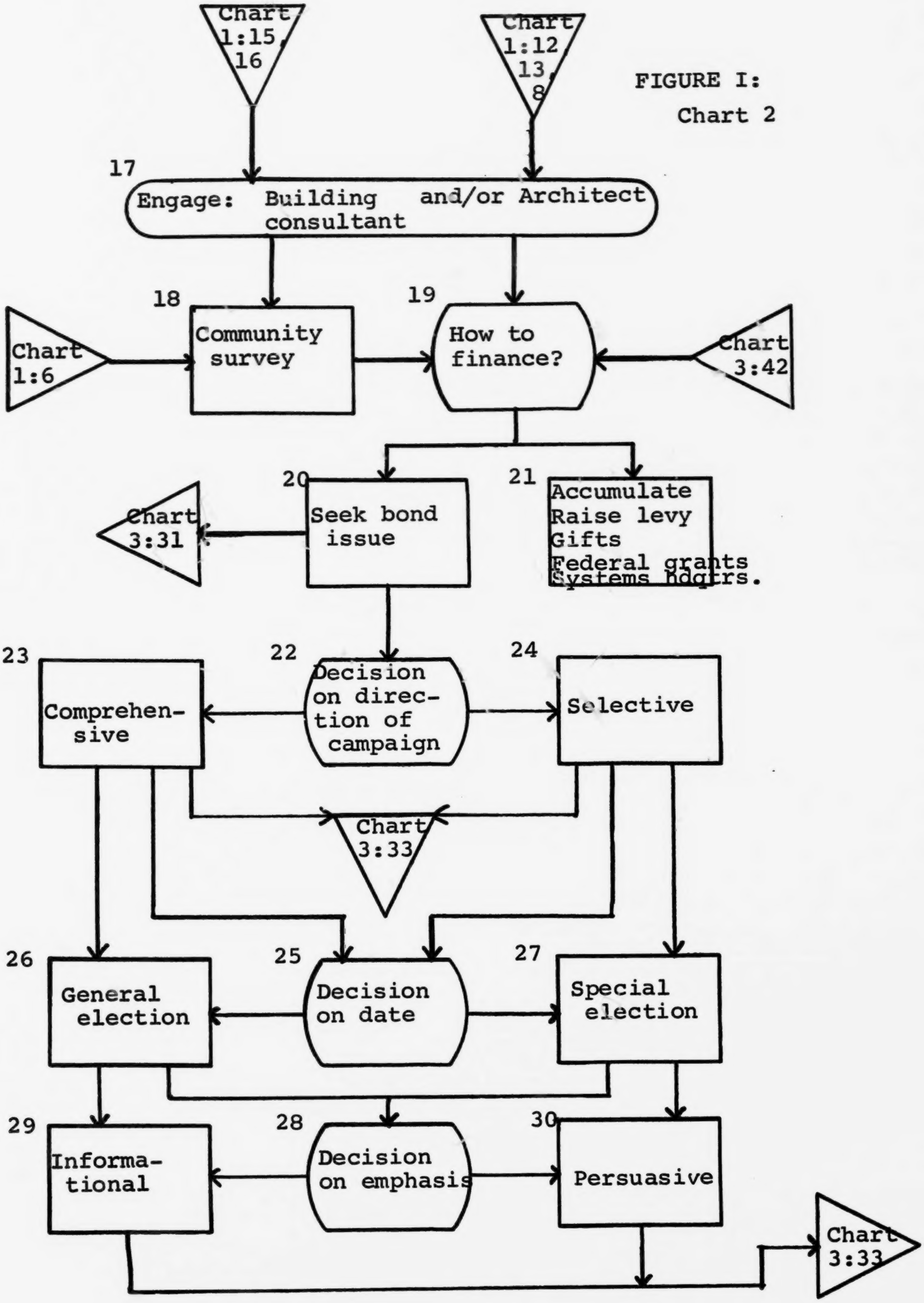
Chart 1:15, 16
Chart 1:12, 13, 8
17
Engage: Building consultant and/or Architect
18
Community survey
19
How to finance?
Chart 1:6
Chart 3:42
20
Seek bond issue
21
Accumulate
Raise levy
Gifts
Federal grants
Systems hdqtrs.
Chart 3:31
23
Comprehensive
22
Decision on direction of campaign
24
Selective
Chart 3:33
26
General election
25
Decision on date
27
Special election
29
Informational
28
Decision on emphasis
30
Persuasive
Chart 3:33

FIGURE I: Chart 3

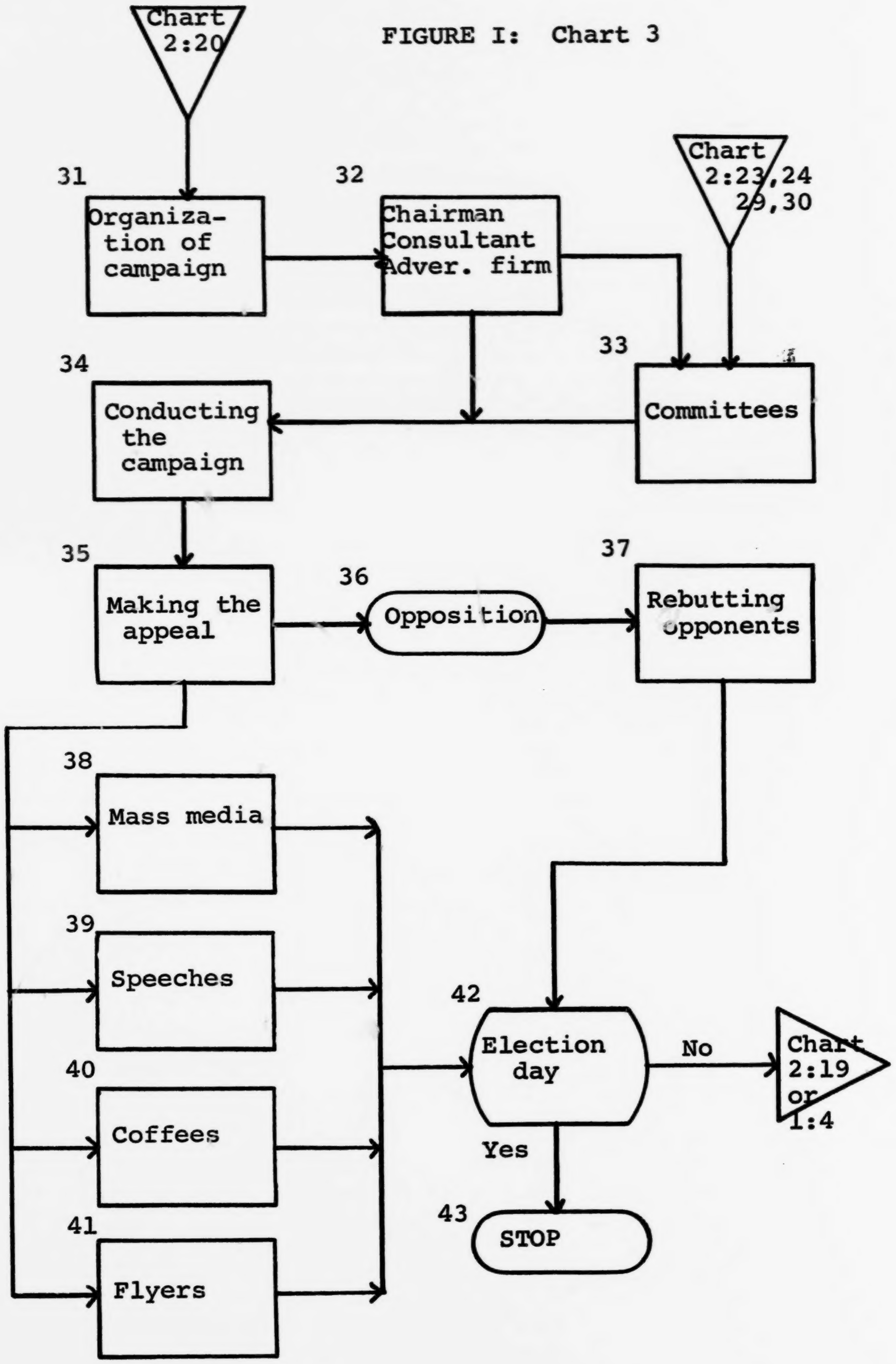
Chart 2:20
31
Organization of campaign
32
Chairman Consultant Adver. firm
Chart 2:23,24 29,30
33
Committees
34
Conducting the campaign
35
Making the appeal
36
Opposition
37
Rebutting opponents
38
Mass media
39
Speeches
40
Coffees
41
Flyers
42
Election day
No
Chart 2:19 or 1:4
Yes
43
STOP

While the nature of the decisions can be deduced from the organization and conduct of the campaign, it does not necessarily follow that all these decisions were made or even recognized as decisions that should be made. It also does not necessarily follow that the decisions were made with full knowledge of their consequences. What seems to be essential here is that library supporters develop a plan of strategy which they feel will work. An essential part of this is knowing that the strategy can be implemented successfully.

Having decided on a date, the library supporters may choose to develop a campaign which is both comprehensive and selective, informational and persuasive. If this is the result of a conscious strategy, the campaign may be successful. But if this campaign represents unclear thinking about who the library is trying to reach and how best to reach him, the campaign may fail.

Essentially, we are suggesting that there are, or should be, reasons for using or not using each technique. The campaigner who knows how each technique fits into an over-all plan, designed to succeed, is more likely to succeed than the campaigner who goes all out but in all directions.

Clearly, a great deal of work is involved, even in an unsuccessful campaign. The dedication and decisiveness of the board-librarian team is also very important in providing essential enthusiasm and support. More is required than unanimous but passive agreement that a new library is needed.

Residents of the communities who were interviewed suggested reasons for the defeat of the referendums. In Quincy the major reason was seen as the generally unfavorable attitude of the voters toward tax increases. Opponents of the issue had publicized a number of reasons for not demolishing the old library building. Informants felt that opposition to razing the building contributed to the issue's defeat. The board felt that the large number of decisions the voter was called upon to make, made manifest by the number of ballots he had to handle, contributed to the library's defeat. Several of the interviewees pointed to inadequacies in the library's campaign.

In Champaign the board and librarian felt that the major reason for their defeat was opposition to increased property taxes, coupled with a failure on their part to realize the depth of this opposition. The date, they felt in retrospect, was a poor one--both because of tax bills in May and the mental health referendum three days later.

Proponents of a new library for Peoria were disappointed by the close defeat in the first campaign, and felt the difference could have been overcome by just a little more hard work. While votes against the library were considered primarily votes against increased taxes, they were thought to be partially due to a lack of understanding on the part of the public as to the value to the city of a new main library.

The assessment made by the librarian and the board of the reasons for the defeat in Peoria are probably accurate. Undoubtedly opposition to more property taxes was a factor, and, coupled with an incomplete informational campaign, it was enough to defeat the referendum. This clearly indicated a second campaign to build on the first with a little greater effort and a more thorough approach to all sections of the city.

While it is difficult to say precisely without asking them, why voters in Quincy defeated the library referendum, certain factors probably contributed to the defeat. One of these contributing factors is voter dislike of tax increases. The number of issues on the ballot may have discouraged some people from voting for the library. Since all five special issues failed in Quincy, the possibility arises that some voters were simply voting "no" on all of them.

Another factor which might have contributed to the Quincy defeat was the choice of the November date. While the board did not anticipate the large number of special issues presented at that election, they did recognize that few issues of purely local interest would confront the voters.

The voters might have felt that the board had not planned the new library thoroughly enough. Although they had been working on building and financing plans for over a year, the board had not actively sought advice and guidance from the community. One cannot be certain, after the fact, whether additional publicity, at each step, would have changed the election outcome. At least the board would have been less vulnerable to the opposition's charge that people weren't being kept informed. The board was not attempting to conceal their plans, but they were making a minimal effort to inform voters.

The decentralized campaign organization which finally evolved also appears to have been a factor contributing to the library's defeat. The campaign management, headed by a steering committee and served by a series of executive secretaries, appears to have resulted in some duplication of effort among committees and in some confusion over who should make decisions. In one sense the steering committee was a good idea since its existence suggested the library bonds were supported by a broader range of the community than just the library board. But the size of the committee made it unwieldy.

In Champaign, the date chosen for the library bond issue referendum was perhaps the most decisive factor contributing to its defeat. The fact that tax bills were received in May, just as the library campaign was moving into public notice, was unfortunate. The deadline for payment of taxes was June 1, just two days before the referendum date. The board evidently failed to realize that for most people of moderate means the tax bill hurts most when, at last, it must be actually paid in hard cash. In 1967 the tax rate in Champaign had jumped 14 percent, due to the successful passage during the preceding year of a school bond issue, additional park district funding, and the establishment of a junior college district.

The referendum date became doubly unfortunate when an election to establish a mental health district was set for two days later. This was something that the library obviously could not control even though their date had been chosen first, but it did serve as a focal point for conservatives who have always battled hard against mental health funding. While they were fighting mental health it was easy to include the library. Perhaps the two issues taken separately might not have engendered such intense opposition.

Another factor of importance in this library election was the recent activity of conservatives on the Champaign political scene. The April elections proved their effectiveness when they united behind a candidate who ran second in the city council race. At the first council meeting he participated in, the new conservative councilman cast the only "no" vote on the question of allowing the library to hold its referendum. He obviously felt obligated, in terms of his beliefs, to vote this way; his stance of record gave the conservative opponents of the library cause a rallying point.

At this time the conservatives were still "up" following their victory in the city election, and their organization was still viable. They focused their opposition to the library referendum on two main issues. First, they are basically against anything that causes taxes to rise. Many are large property owners, and a tax hike hurts them personally. Working behind the scenes, they can convince large numbers of smaller taxpayers that they too will suffer. Secondly, conservatives are traditionally opposed to all "frills" being offered as services to the population.

The conduct of the campaign itself was of crucial importance. There had been no real background of continuing public relations effort on the part of the library, as opposed to publicity. The Champaign Public Library had not been in the public eye. When the final weeks of the campaign began, and even after the election, many persons in the community felt that the whole thing was too sudden, that the public had had little time to think it over, and that the board had not given the merits of the alternatives proper consideration. No matter that the board had been grappling with the problem for years before proposing a solution, or that the need was urgent; what counted was the lack of a general public perception of the issue.

The over-all direction of the campaign left something to be desired. There was not a well-thought-out, consistent strategy. With some exceptions, the publicity coverage of the town was of a blanket nature rather than directed at specific areas or groups. A few members of the board and of the library staff did both the major and the minor tasks necessary in the campaign. The Friends of the Library were used for clerical tasks and telephoning and had little voice in the planning. Voters contacted during the campaign had not been asked for a firm commitment to vote "yes." Therefore, on the day of the election there was no list of names that could be counted on to serve as a basis for a last-minute telephone effort to get out the favorable vote. This would have been better than the use of non-selective lists of voters who, after being reminded to vote by the library, might be as likely to vote against the bond issue as for it. Even the use of lists of library registered borrowers is suspect, because the friends and users of a library are not necessarily the same.

In some ways the campaign was perfunctory, though this does not mean that those closely involved in it did not care a great deal about the outcome, or that they did not put sincere efforts into it. But they did drastically underestimate the appeal of their opponents. Perhaps they were too closely involved to assess realistically the depth of the opposition. The board was somewhat overconfident and never dreamed that the library project would be defeated, while persons in Champaign with more political knowledge felt just the opposite.

In an election for office there are normally two candidates, each serving as an opponent for the other. In a bond issue referendum, especially when supporters feel that most citizens will think the issue is for a "good cause," there seems to be less awareness of potential opposition. Plans for the campaign should include consideration of who is likely to oppose the bond issue and for what reasons. The obvious source of opposition comes from those who object to higher taxes, so that proponents of a library bond issue should be able to explain clearly and convincingly that the tax increase has been kept to a minimum.

The data gathered in this study do not permit measurement of the strength of voter opposition to increased taxes. The amount of this opposition could be investigated by interviewing a sample of voters shortly after the election. Voters could be asked how they voted and about the influence of various factors on their decision. The sample interviewed in such a study should be representative of the community. Unless voters themselves have given opposition to taxes as their reason for voting against a referendum, assessing this as a primary factor in the referendum's defeat is speculation.

Potential opposition does not end with taxes as our cases suggest. These other kinds of opposition should be anticipated so that the arguments can be countered. One way such opposition can be foreseen is by encouraging public discussion and by promoting public awareness of the library's need, even as the building program is being formulated. If the board and librarian are convinced that library facilities must be modernized, and the possibility of a bond issue election exists, the library has an opportunity to let the public share in its planning. Such cooperation may help to allay fears that something is being "put over" on the community. It also provides opportunities to answer potential opponents and to develop a corps of supporters who can be put to work during the campaign.

Our cases do not provide a clear-cut example of a successful campaign conducted by a citizens' committee, but they do indicate the potential value of such an arrangement. Not only is the library, as a public institution, more removed from the political arena by this device, but the librarian and board can be cast in the role of experts. They can provide information by explaining how plans were developed and how the new library is expected to benefit the city. As experts they cannot be accused of being self-seeking. That role is left to the citizens' committee which is attempting to improve the city.

Although the library is normally removed from the mainstream of community politics, when it seeks added financial support the library becomes more clearly a part of local government. Since the public library is infrequently thrown into the political arena, it would be surprising if knowledge of local politics were given high priority in selecting board members. Nevertheless, it would appear that knowledge of local politics, whether provided by the board or by others, is essential in planning and conducting successful financial campaigns.

Members of the library board and any other actively concerned supporters of the library should make a concerted private approach to the community power structure before the campaign formally opens.

With the increasing use of opinion polls by candidates for office, it is worth noting that these libraries did not make use of the technique. Polls of voter reaction to the public library could possibly be used to help in determining the site. Results could also be used in planning the appeal most likely to be acceptable.

The American Library Association, as the national professional organization for librarians, might play a larger role in providing advice and technical assistance to libraries which are planning referendums. More emphasis should be given to this kind of help by state library agencies. Although organizations on the state and national level are prepared to help in formulating the building program and in planning the building, much less attention has been given to aiding librarians and boards in solving the problems involved in planning and conducting campaigns to secure voter approval for library bonds.

The value of retaining professionally trained public relations personnel to help with the campaign should not be lightly ignored. While the techniques used to sell soap or toothpaste may not be appropriate for a library bond issue campaign, the expert knowledge of public relations people is valuable in planning advertising layout, wording of brochures, and speeches, as well as advising on the most effective methods of providing information to certain groups of people. The technical complexities involved in the use of mass media can also be dealt with more efficiently by professionals.

The groundwork for a successful library bond referendum should have begun years before with a concerted, continuing effort to explain and demonstrate how the public library can serve its community. This continuing public relations effort then offers a good base of favorable community opinion from which willing campaign workers can be drawn. The librarian and the board should be aware of the kinds of decisions which must be made, especially during the planning and execution of the pre-election campaign. They should know the consequences of their actions and how these are related to their over-arching objective of securing funds to build a modern public library.

PART II

SUBURBAN COMMUNITIES AND PUBLIC LIBRARY SERVICE IN THE CHICAGO STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREA

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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDY

In the mid-thirties, Louis R. Wilson directed a study at the University of Chicago whose purpose was to make an inventory of the American public library as an institution of broad social significance. Specifically, the study undertook to indicate the distribution of libraries; to compare this distribution with that of other institutions, organizations, and media; and to discover, if possible, the causes which had brought about inequalities in the distribution of libraries.[1]

Disparities in library service were found, and were shown to be accompanied:

> . . . by differences in the possession by regions, states, counties, and communities of the services from schools, adult educational organizations, and other social and cultural institutions and media for the dissemination of ideas--such as bookstores, magazines, daily newspapers. . . . Where library resources are abundant, these are likewise abundant. . . . The library becomes a ready index by which to measure the standard of living, or, as a sensitive thermometer, it serves to register the cultural temperature of many areas of America.[2]

Having found these disparities, the Wilson study analyzed their causes.

> The causes which have contributed to this variation have been shown . . . to fall into several categories. Some are incident to geographical and topographical conditions; some to the composition, rate of change, and migrations of population; some to the educational status of communities or regions; some to the economic stability of tenant, farmer, miner, and manufacturer who comprise the general social order. All of these causes are somewhat susceptible of measurement, and indices of correlation between them and the status of libraries may be worked out.[3]

> Other causes (of variation in library service) . . . depend upon the willingness and effort of people to support essential institutions and upon attitudes which are concretely expressive of themselves through co-operation, through forms of taxation and of governmental organization and administration.[4]

This variation in the ability and willingness of people to support an institution such as the public library is still obvious to anyone who examines library statistics. To carry this idea past the level of observation, one could hypothesize that there are distinctive types of community groupings of similar persons who will supply themselves with library service while other communities will not do so. The composition of the population in some communities may be homogeneous enough that the community, as a whole, can be said to have certain characteristics. Some combination of characteristics may identify populations that expect and will support library service.

One of the major problems that Wilson had been concerned with in 1938 was the increasing urbanization of the United States, with all its implications for human society.[5] In 1962, a similar theme was sounded in a University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science publication in which 18 librarians discussed the implications of changing population trends for their particular types of libraries.[6] Hauser and Taitel cite the metropolitan explosion during this century.

> In 1900, areas which would have been classified as metropolitan under later federal definitions numbered about 50 and contained fewer than 26 million persons, about one-third of the nation's population. . . . while by 1960, 63 percent of the population, or almost 113 million persons, lived in 212 Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas.[7]

By 1980, close to 70 percent of the population will be in metropolitan areas.[8] Furthermore, most of this future increase will be in the suburbs.

> . . . of the projected increase of 58 million in the population of metropolitan areas between 1960 and 1980, about 45 million is projected for absorption by suburbs. By 1980, of some 170 million people in metropolitan areas, close to 100 million may well be in suburbs, only around 70 million in central cities.[9]

The population has become increasingly concentrated in the urban areas as a result of basic forces which determine the distribution of population: technological, economic, social, and political.

Hauser and Taitel point out that in the next few years changes in the occupational structure may not be as marked as in the past few decades. However, trends in the direction of increasing proportions of professional and technical, white-collar and service-trade workers may be expected to continue.[10] Since librarians make the assumption that a large proportion of their users come from the white-collar and professional strata, this trend would then indicate that demand will increase even faster than aggregate population size.

Of immediate implication to this present study is Hauser and Taitel's conclusion.

> Differences in physical facilities tended to produce a parallel socio-economic stratification of the urban and metropolitan population. Persons of the lowest income, educational, and occupational status, usually the newcomers to the urban environment, tended to occupy the less desirable residences toward the center of the city. Persons of higher income, education and social status tended to locate toward the peripheries of the metropolis. Agencies and institutions of all sorts tended to reflect, and are attuned to, the characteristics of the people contained in the areas in which they are located.[11]

In the same volume, Fenwick has this to say about the population composition of the suburbs:

> The recent migration has brought more young families and more families of medium and lower income to build and buy homes in the new suburbs. The aspirations motivating migration have been the same as those that brought families out of the growing central cities thirty and forty years ago--desire for open space, stable homogeneous neighborhoods, safe play areas, and good schools.[12]

The rapidly expanding suburban communities are served, by and large, by small, independent-unit public libraries.

> Many small and medium-sized libraries will be affected by their proximity to urbanized areas. Any suburban library may expect demands upon its services according to the population characteristics of the central city and its pattern of library service. And those public libraries lying within fringe and potential fringe areas of the great urban developments must expect their communities to mushroom to near absolute capacity by 1980.[13]

Even when the local community can increase its level of financial support for the public library rapidly enough to keep pace with the population increase on a per capita income basis, it may not be doing well enough.

> Any assumption that present levels of service will do for tomorrow ignores the basic implications of the projected population changes. It is not simply a matter of more population but one of more population differently structured. A constant per capita income will not provide for an increasing per capita demand.[14]

In The Public Library and the City,[15] some solutions to the problems of providing good library service in the metropolitan area are discussed. Garrison[16] gives some figures on public library growth in suburban Chicago, which indicate that these suburban libraries are actually losing, rather than gaining, ground.

Average % Change in Public Library Service, 1950-'60

Population	Book Stock	Circulation	Expenditures
70%	53%	116%	191%

He suggests that a series of case studies of library service in suburban communities is needed.

There is, then, a body of literature suggesting that the suburban communities of the SMSA's are faced with a current and continuing influx of population of a type which will place greater demands on the public library, out of proportion to merely numerical increase. The socio-economic strata of the suburban dwellers will influence their expectations of community services.

With the increasing urbanization of American life, and the demands placed on the individual citizen by an increasingly complex society, library service becomes an essential aspect of life. But, because it has traditionally been regarded as a local perogative, and as such is dependent on the will of the local taxpayer, glaring differences in library service levels occur. Those concerned with libraries need to know more about who now wants service, who now gets service, and who does not.

Purpose of the Study

The proposition to be tested in this study is that certain types of suburban communities will have predictably higher levels of library service than others. Within any of the community groupings there may be variants where library service patterns may be influenced by factors beyond the range of this study.

In order to test the hypothesis, library variables and community variables need to be treated statistically to see if there are any correlations between them that will support the hypotheses. These variables must be reliable, valid, and easily available to the researcher.

Using these criteria, the library and community variables were chosen, and the locale of the study was set in the Chicago SMSA. The Chicago metropolitan area is unique, and well suited for a study of this type, since it has dozens of independent suburban libraries surrounding the central cities. The fragmentation of the governmental units is matched by autonomy of the local public libraries. The recent development of "library systems" in Illinois has, as yet, done little to change the basic structure of public library organization. Furthermore, variation among the communities is great. Some are large, others small; some are wealthy, others depressed; some are "dormitory" suburbs, others have substantial amounts of industry and commerce.

Much previous research and writing has dealt with the classification of cities. There are many criteria that can be used, such as the resident worker/non-resident worker ratio. The Rand McNally Commercial Atlas and Marketing Guide[17] has city rating and economic activity codes for Illinois' principal business centers, but using only the cities so rated in the Chicago SMSA would have made the study sample too small. Also, a measure of this sort, dealing only with the manufacturing/retail function of the community, is not as meaningful for library service as a ranking of cities on a socio-economic scale. The socio-economic status of a community reflects the socio-economic status of its residents, and it is the residents who determine the library service pattern.

Development of the Study

The major source of data for the library variables was the annual library statistics issue of Illinois Libraries. Figures for the fiscal year 1966 were used. While there is some question about the exact numerical accuracy of all the statistics reported to the state by individual libraries, measurement by factor analysis, in groupings of ranges of figures, nullifies any such relatively small discrepancies. Where any reported figures appeared to be excessively large or small they were compared to reports of previous years.

The data for the communities had to be based on the 1960 census, with the assumption that basic community characteristics, except for population size, had not been altered significantly between 1960 and 1966. A reliable estimate of 1965 population for the communities had been made for the Chicago Area Transportation Study, so these figures were used to give rate of growth and as a measure of the population served by the public libraries in 1966. Where special census figures for 1965 or 1966 were available, the estimates were checked against them.

When the library variables were being selected, some conversion of the raw data into per capita figures needed to be made in order to give a better measure of service levels, on a clearer basis of comparison, with population size equalized. One major criticism of present library statistics is that they are not valid, that is, that they do not measure what they are supposed to measure. It is admittedly difficult to say that circulation statistics, number of books owned, or amount of money spent are valid measures of quality of service. But until better statistical measures are found, these are all we have to work with on a comparative basis. Book expenditures of so many cents per person annually, or tax income of so many dollars per person annually, at least show some greater effort at service by a few libraries.

In the course of compiling the statistics, it was decided to include also some measure of the per capita figures for books, book expenditures, tax income and total expenditures in 1960 as well as 1966. The figures necessary to calculate these were gathered, but not included as variables in the full study.

The major community variable is a composite social rank classification developed for Chicago suburbs by James Grimm for the Survey Research Laboratory of the University of Illinois. The variable consists of a social rank number for the community (Table 1), based on income, educational level of adults, and percentage of white-collar workers.

TABLE 1

COMMUNITY CLASSIFICATION BY COMPOSITE SOCIAL RANK

Social Rank	Median Income	Percent White Collar	Years of Education
1	$7,000 and below	30% and less	10 yrs. or less
2	7,000 - 7,500	31% - 35%	10.1 - 10.8
3	7,500 - 8,000	36% - 40%	10.8 - 11.5
4	8,000 - 8,500	41% - 45%	11.5 - 12.0
5	8,500 - 9,000	46% - 61%	12.0 - 12.6
6	9,000 - 11,000	61% - 76%	12.6 - 14.0
7	11,000 - plus	76% and more	14 yrs. and more

As figures for the library and community variables were gathered, they were arranged on data sheets for easy transference to IBM key punch cards. In an attempt to fill in missing data, letters were sent to some of the libraries whose statistics were incomplete in reports to the Illinois State Library. A desk calculator was used to arrive at the figures for per capita books, book expenditures, tax income and total expenditures for 1960 and 1966. This method was also used for the figures on percentage increase in the population 1960-1965 and percentage change in the per capita figures from 1960 to 1966. All of the manual calculations were checked by a second person.

When all of the data was assembled and ready for the computer there were 159 communities covered by the study. Of the 42 variables, ten were community characteristics. The complete list of variables is shown in Table 2. Communities with populations of less than 2,500 in 1960 were excluded because of lack of census data. All of the communities in the Chicago SMSA were included for which census data on median income, percentage of white-collar workers, and median years of school completed were available. A list of these communities, grouped by social rank classification, appears as Appendix A. Of the 159 communities, 28 were without public library service. These were included in the study, with zero's entered for the library variables, as examples of communities which have not provided themselves with library service. Table 3 shows the distribution, by social rank, of suburbs with and without libraries.

It had been decided that the statistical approach to the correlation of library and community variables could

TABLE 2

LIST OF LIBRARY AND COMMUNITY VARIABLES

Variable 1	Tax Rate
Variable 2	Registered Borrowers
Variable 3	Non-Resident Borrowers
Variable 4	Hours Open Per Week
Variable 5	Full-Time Staff
Variable 6	Professional Staff
Variable 7	Non-Professional Staff
Variable 8	Books
Variable 9	Volumes Added
Variable 10	Non-Book Resources
Variable 11	Total Circulation
Variable 12	Tax Income
Variable 13	Total Income
Variable 14	Professional Salaries
Variable 15	Non-Professional Salaries
Variable 16	Expenditures for Book Materials
Variable 17	Expenditures for Non-Book Materials
Variable 18	1965 Population Estimate
Variable 19	Percent of Population Increase, 1960-1965
Variable 20	1960 Population
Variable 21	Assessed Valuation, 1965, in Thousands
Variable 22	Books Per Capita, 1966
Variable 23	Tax Income Per Capita, 1966
Variable 24	Total Expenditures Per Capita, 1966
Variable 25	Total Expenditures
*Variable 26	System Member
Variable 27	Non-Resident Fees
Variable 28	Book Expenditures Per Capita, 1966
Variable 29	Community Classification
Variable 30	Percent White Collar
Variable 31	Median Years of School
Variable 32	Median Income
*Variable 33	Books Per Capita, 1960
*Variable 34	Tax Income Per Capita, 1960
*Variable 35	Book Expenditures Per Capita, 1960
*Variable 36	Total Expenditure Per Capita, 1960
*Variable 37	Percent Change 1960-1966 in Books Per Capita
*Variable 38	Percent Change 1960-1966 in Tax Income Per Capita
*Variable 39	Percent Change 1960-1966 in Book Expenditures Per Capita
*Variable 40	Percent Change 1960-1966 in Total Expenditures Per Capita
Variable 41	Percent Non-White
Variable 42	Percent Under 18 Years

*(Variable eliminated before factor analysis.)

TABLE 3

NUMBER OF COMMUNITIES IN STUDY WITH AND WITHOUT LIBRARY SERVICE, BY SOCIAL RANK

Social Rank	Number With Library	Number Without Library	Percent With Library Service
1	10	10	50
2	25	7	78
3	21	4	84
4	19	2	90
5	18	1	95
6	19	1	95
7	11	3	79
Not Ranked*	8		

*(Lack of census data)

best be handled by computer. The material was handled in three steps. The first computer program used was a missing data correlation operation. This program provided means and standard deviations for all of the variables both for the study as a whole and for the sub-groups of socio-economically ranked communities. Comparisons can thus be made between the means of any variable as given for Rank 1 communities and Rank 7, for instance. Secondly, the program allowed calculation of correlations for all of the variables for the study as a whole, and for the sub-groups.

Elimination of all missing data was necessary before factor analysis because a multi-variate approach assumes complete coverage of every item. This was accomplished by 1) excluding those communities with large amounts of missing data, and 2) filling the scattered "holes" with constructed data. As a result of the first step, 24 communities were dropped (Table 4).

TABLE 4

NUMBER OF COMMUNITIES ELIMINATED BEFORE FACTOR ANALYSIS

Library Statistics Not Available		Community Statistics Not Available	
New Libraries	Association Libraries	Census Data	Other
7	7	7	3
	Total:	24	

The distribution of these communities by socio-economic rank was as follows:

TABLE 5

COMMUNITIES ELIMINATED BEFORE FACTOR ANALYSIS, BY SOCIAL RANK

Social Rank	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Ranked*	Total
Number	2	5	4	3	1	1	0	8	24

*(Lack of census data)

Most of the variables with missing data have high correlations with total expenditures, higher than with social rank classification.[18] Therefore the communities were grouped by total expenditure ranges, and the number within each range rank ordered for each variable having missing data.[19] The median figure was used because means are too sensitive to skewing by extreme cases. When the factor analysis program was run, the means and standard deviations for the variables common to the missing data correlations and factor analysis were compared. No changes of any significant size had occurred.

Several variables were eliminated before factor analysis, primarily because they were constructed from other data and would have been repetitive elements in the final factors. For instance, Variable 37, "Percent Change, 1960-1966, in Books Per Capita," was calculated from Variable 33, "Books Per Capita 1960" and Variable 22, "Books Per Capita 1966." Each of these had in turn been constructed from the 1960 or 1965 population and book stock. The nine variables had been included in the original correlations for reasons peripheral to the study.

The use of factor analysis was justified in this study by the large amount of data to be handled, the relatively large number of observations (communities), and the number of variables. A correlation matrix of 42 by 42 is of unwieldy size, and the configuration of the relationships between the variables cannot, statistically speaking, be inferred from it. The advantage of factor analysis over other techniques such as multiple regression is that it demonstrates the broadest dimensions of association among the whole set of variables. Factor analysis also reveals associations between particular variables which either are not easily discernible or are suspected from a matrix of raw correlations. The correlation coefficients serve only to indicate a relationship between any two variables. If A and B are correlated, and B and C also, it does not necessarily follow that A, B, and C are interdependent. A more technical discussion of the foundations of factor analysis may be found in Modern Factor Analysis, by Harman.[20]

Factor analysis frequently serves as a model for psychological research, but it is also a tool for exploratory research in other fields. Psychologists using it are concerned with the estimation of communalities, or the prior assessment of the diagonal values of the correlation matrix. The communality of a variable is equal to the squared multiple correlation of the variable with the common factors. When factor analysis is used as a descriptive tool one does not have this problem. From a procedural standpoint, communalities will not help in this study. The difference they make in the results decreases as the number of variables increases. By 100 variables the effect is less than 1 percent, and at 42 it is not very large.

The IBM keypunch card decks, with the missing data either filled or eliminated, were submitted to the digital computer. A principal axis factor analysis was performed on the correlation matrix and then rotated obliquely by the Oblimax program.[21] The computer was instructed to stop factoring when it had reached ten factors, or had accounted for 80 percent of the variance, or if the roots fell below a value of one. The program was written in SSUPAC for the IBM 7094 digital computer by Kern W. Dickman, assistant director of the University of Illinois Statistical Services Unit.

References to Chapter I

[1] Louis R. Wilson, The Geography of Reading (Chicago: American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1938).

[2] Ibid., p. 434.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid., p. 435.

[5] Ibid., p. 353.

[6] The Future of Library Service: Demographic Aspects and Implications, ed. Frank L. Schick (Urbana, Illinois: Graduate School of Library Science, University of Illinois, 1962).

[7] Philip M. Hauser and Martin Taitel, "Population Trends--Prologue to Library Development," in The Future of Library Service, op. cit.

[8] Ibid., p. 22.

[9] Ibid., p. 23.

[10] Ibid., p. 40.

[11] Ibid., p. 24.

[12] Sara L. Fenwick, "Suburban School Libraries," in The Future of Library Service, op. cit., p. 170.

[13] Ransom L. Richardson, "Small and Medium-Sized Libraries," in The Future of Library Service, op. cit., p. 132-138.

[14] Ibid., p. 136.

[15] The Public Library and the City, ed. Ralph Conant (Cambridge: Harvard - M.I.T., 1965).

[16] Guy G. Garrison, "Public Library Growth in Suburban Chicago, 1950-1960," Illinois Libraries, 47 (January, 1965), 79-89.

[17] Rand McNally, Commercial Atlas and Marketing Guide, 1967.

[18] Other researchers have also found this to be the case with their data.

> "And, good as the coefficients of determination are when population served is the predictor of library

size, the study showed that a closer relationship exists between total budget and the other variables. Similar studies were done using first staff as a predictor, then volumes, and finally circulation as the predictor. The results of these studies are not reported in detail as they simply confirmed the point that, of the five measures available (population served, size of staff, volumes, circulation, and total budget), budget tested out as the most reliable guide to public library size."
from:

Charles E. Rockwood and Ruth H. Rockwood, Quantitative Guides to Public Library Operation, Occasional Papers Number 89 (Urbana, Illinois: Graduate School of Library Science, University of Illinois, 1967), p. 10.

[19] Total expenditure ranges used were: 0 to $15,000; $16,000 to $25,000; $26,000 to $40,000; $41,000 to $60,000; $61,000 to $75,000; and $75,000 and above.

[20] Harry H. Harman, Modern Factor Analysis (2nd ed., Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1967).

[21] Ibid., pp. 314-318.

CHAPTER II

RESULTS: MEANS FOR THE RAW DATA VARIABLES

While calculating the correlation coefficient matrix, the digital computer produced means and standard deviations for each variable, first for the study group as a whole, and then for each of the social rank sub-groups. Appendix B is a table giving the means for the variables, by social rank, for reference during the following discussion.

Having the means figured by social rank groups proved very useful, for in several areas there are progressions upward in the library variables as the social rank of the community group increases. Because of the ordering of the observations into sub-groups a discussion of the means for raw data variables has some value here. Percent of population increase, 1960 to 1965, has a mean for the study as a whole of 31.9. It progresses from a mean population increase of 23.3 percent in Social Rank 1, by fairly even steps, to a mean increase of 38 percent in Social Rank 5 communities. For the two highest social rank groups the population increase averages 17.3 and 16.9 percent. The highest population growth, then, is in the more "middle class" communities and the least growth is in the "upper class" communities.

Community size is not related to social rank groupings. The mean population size for Social Rank 1 (the lowest category) communities is the smallest in the study; the others do not even remain constant, but fluctuate as the social rank increases. This is important because several of the library variables do increase in magnitude with social rank, and it is therefore to be assumed that population size alone is not causing the increase and that some other aspect of the communities is causing the progression.

For instance, the means of the number of registered borrowers generally shows an interesting increase as the social rank level of the community increases (Table 6). The standard deviations of the sub-groups are not overly large. Hours open per week shows a similar progression. If the number of registered borrowers and hours open per week increase as the community's social rank increases, but population size does not, the residents are either receiving better service or making more use of the library service available. With no more than these figures, we do not know that the service provided is any better, merely that a higher proportion of the public served makes use of it.

TABLE 6

FREQUENCY COUNTS, MEANS, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR STUDY AS A WHOLE AND SUB-GROUPS

Social Rank Group	Registered Borrowers Variable 2			Hours Open Per Week Variable 4		
	N	$\overline{X}$	s	N	$\overline{X}$	s
Universe	147	7218	8135	149	37.5	23.3
1	19	1878	2711	19	17.0	19.8
2	29	7533	8753	30	36.1	25.3
3	22	4475	5430	22	31.2	19.1
4	19	4283	3656	19	33.2	15.6
5	18	10142	6482	18	51.4	16.7
6	19	16849	11524	19	54.9	17.6
7	14	7752	5842	14	47.1	27.9

While the mean for tax income is higher at the upper end of the social rank scale (Table 7), the standard deviations are so large as to indicate wide variations within each community group. This is true to a somewhat lesser extent of the raw figures for expenditures for book materials. The total expenditures for libraries by the community groups seem to make no upward progression.

The means and the standard deviations for Group 1 on the library variables were undoubtedly affected by the fact that, of 20 communities in this lowest socio-economic category, fully half were without public library service. In the other groups the proportion of communities without service was much smaller, as shown in Table 3.

As measured by the means for the social rank groups for registered borrowers and hours open per week, use increases, but expenditures and income, on an overall basis, do not increase. If expenditures and income are not associated with social rank, they may be more affected by some other factor. Size of the community was not related to social rank either, and this leads to the interesting speculation that size of community and tax income may be related to each other, but are not related to use. Further attention will be given this point later.

TABLE 7

FREQUENCY COUNTS, MEANS, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR STUDY AS A WHOLE AND SUB-GROUPS

Social Rank Group	Tax Income			Expenditures for Book Material			Total Expenditures		
	N	$\overline{X}$	s	N	$\overline{X}$	s	N	$\overline{X}$	s
Universe	149	47801	63318	146	9522	11631	149	49666	64859
1	19	8900	12747	19	1827	3047	20	8968	14021
2	30	55985	79997	29	9209	12011	30	55551	76595
3	22	30652	29736	21	6462	6056	22	28424	27424
4	19	19244	17438	18	4902	4064	18	20990	17716
5	19	55494	38328	18	12481	6985	18	61991	37016
6	20	106026	94486	19	22093	18987	19	12272	10084
7	14	65916	62371	14	12491	10469	14	69006	57083

The number of library staff, particularly professional staff, might serve as a measure of service available (see Appendix B). With the exception of Social Rank 2, the mean number of full-time staff members increases from one in Group 1 to 10.8 in Group 6. In Social Rank 7 the mean drops to 6.1, still a fairly large figure, considering the mean population size for those communities. The breakdown of the means for each group into professional and non-professional staff shows that most of the large figure for Social Rank 2 library staff is accounted for by non-professional staff. In this group of libraries there are about three times as many non-professionals as professionals, on the average; in the other social rank categories the ratio is much less.

The rate at which the communities tax themselves for library service also differs by social rank (see Appendix B). The mean tax rate for the 159 communities is .065 percent. The mean for Social Rank 1 is .027, and that for Social Ranks 6 and 7 is .086.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS: MEANS FOR THE PER CAPITA VARIABLES

In order to get a better measure of library service levels in the social rank groups, four of the raw data variables were converted into per capita figures. This has the effect of standardizing a measure of service by removing the influence of larger populations. Variables for number of books in the collection, book expenditures, tax income, and total expenditures for 1966 were divided by population served. There is some question about the measurement of true levels of service by per capita figures,[1] but given the present reporting methods for statistics no better measures are easily available.

When the raw data were converted to per capita figures, the progression of the mean upward as the communities move upward on the social rank scale is clear. Table 8 gives the frequency count, means and standard deviations for the four per capita measures for the entire study and the social rank groups. The means for the seven community groups are shown graphically in Figure I.

In order to give a clearer picture of the differences in service between groups of similar communities, a graph of the per capita figures for the individual communities within Social Rank Groups 1 and 7 has been prepared. The contrast is immediately apparent in Figure II.

Although it is not within the scope of this study to make value judgments on the level of public library service, the per capita figures for these Illinois communities were quite low in far too many cases. This discrepancy between stated standards and actual practice is discouraging.

Taken together, the picture of the library service in the community groups, as measured by per capita books, book expenditures, tax income, and total expenditures shows clearly that in the Chicago SMSA the higher the socioeconomic rank of the community the higher the level of library service. It is interesting to note that once the income and expenditures are put on a per capita basis, the highest social rank groups do have the highest support figures. From Table 8, given the means for total tax income,

TABLE 8

FREQUENCY COUNTS, MEANS, AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR COMMUNITIES AS A WHOLE AND SUB-GROUPS

Social Rank Group	Books Per Capita, 1966 Variable 22			Book Expenditure Per Capita, 1966 Variable 28			Tax Income Per Capita, 1966 Variable 23			Total Expenditure Per Capita, 1966 Variable 24		
	N	$\overline{X}$	s	N	$\overline{X}$	s	N	$\overline{X}$	s	N	$\overline{X}$	s
Universe	147	1.38	1.05	146	.49	.38	153	2.22	1.85	149	2.42	1.90
1	18	.69	.96	19	.15	.20	19	.79	1.00	20	.80	.95
2	30	1.10	.90	29	.34	.26	31	1.77	1.68	30	2.02	2.00
3	22	1.03	.74	21	.44	.36	23	2.00	1.61	22	1.97	1.33
4	19	1.28	.80	18	.48	.33	20	1.71	1.30	18	1.98	1.31
5	18	1.60	.85	18	.70	.38	19	2.97	1.87	18	3.29	1.67
6	19	1.92	.91	19	.68	.28	20	3.27	1.72	19	3.68	1.45
7	14	2.20	1.41	14	.81	.50	14	3.88	2.34	14	4.20	2.39

FIGURE I

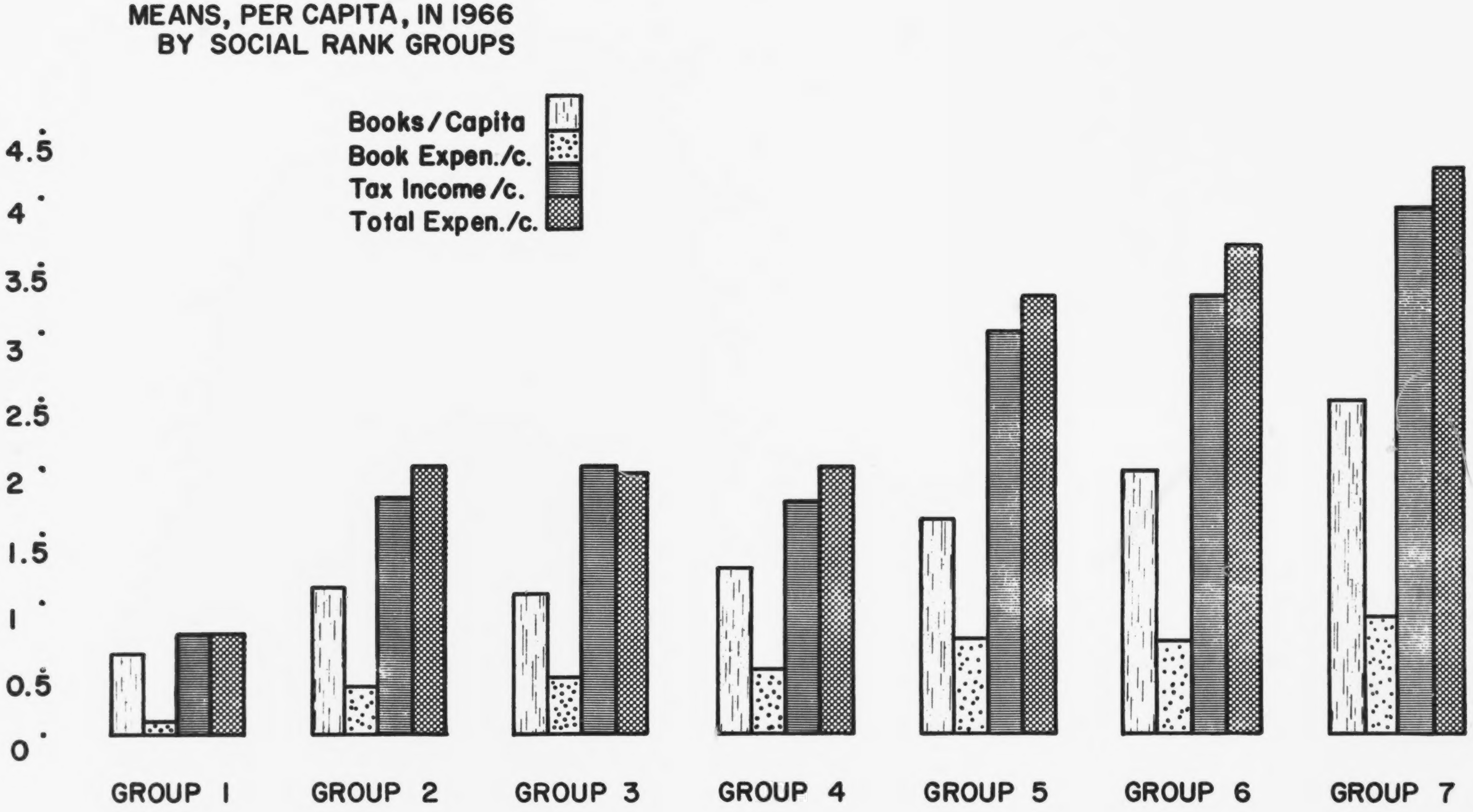
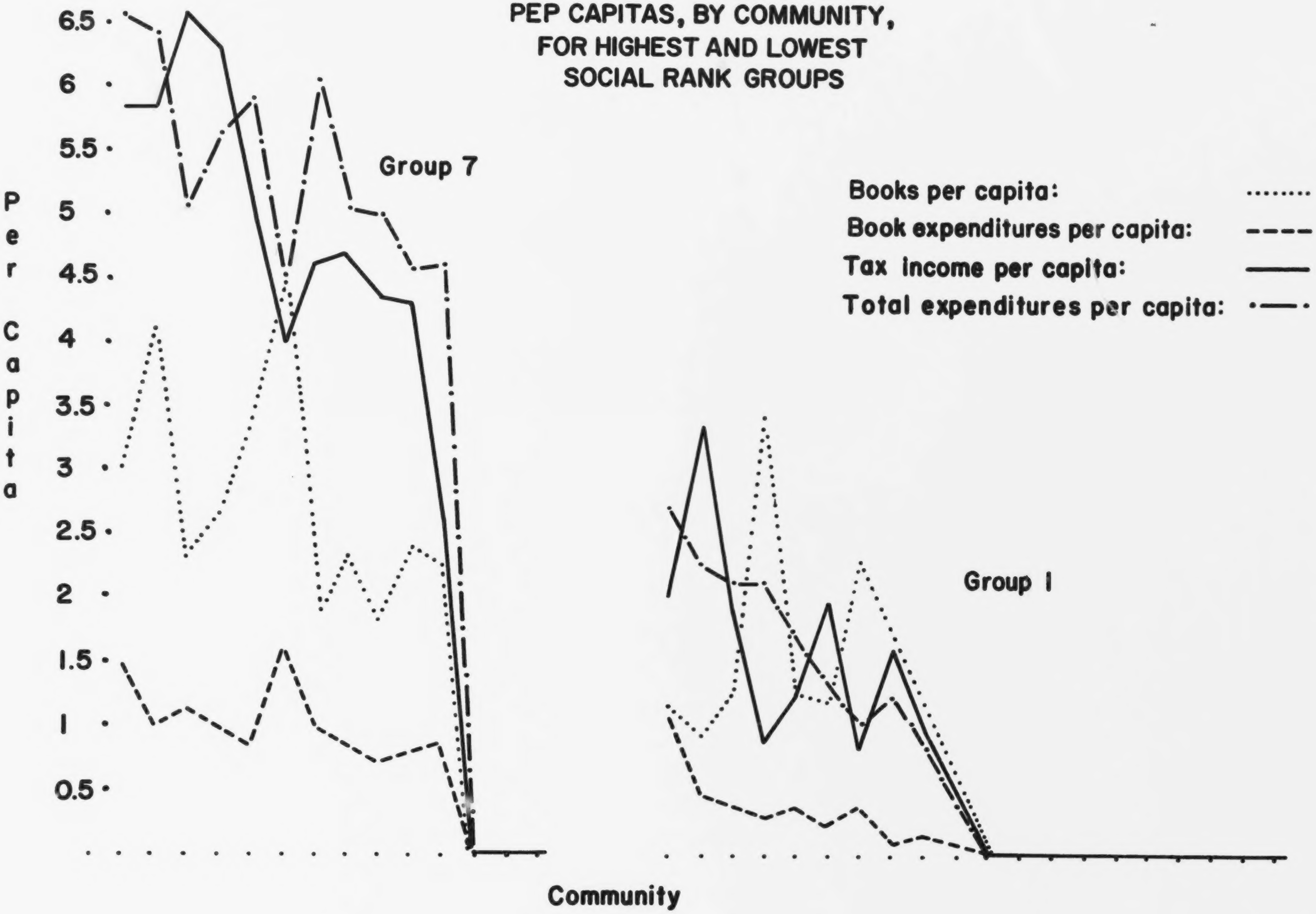

MEANS, PER CAPITA, IN 1966
BY SOCIAL RANK GROUPS
Books/Capita
Book Expen./c.
Tax Income/c.
Total Expen./c.
4.5
4
3.5
3
2.5
2
1.5
1
0.5
0
GROUP 1
GROUP 2
GROUP 3
GROUP 4
GROUP 5
GROUP 6
GROUP 7

FIGURE II

PEP CAPITAS, BY COMMUNITY,
FOR HIGHEST AND LOWEST
SOCIAL RANK GROUPS



book expenditures and total expenditures, the highest social rank group might have been thought to fall off a bit in financial support.

References to Chapter III

[1] New York (State) University, State Education Department, Division of Education, Emerging Library Systems: the 1963-1966 Evaluation of the New York Public Library Systems (February, 1967), p. VII2, 7.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS: MATRIX OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

The next step in analysis was the missing data correlation program which produced a matrix of 42 by 42, given in Appendix C. There were many high correlations between clearly interrelated variables, such as numbers of books and total circulation. It would be impossible to list or discuss all of these, so only those correlations of immediate interest to this study will be included here.

Three of the community variables had negative correlations with almost all of the other variables. Percent of population increase, 1960-1965, had negative correlations, though they were too low to be significant, with all but five variables.[1] There were negative correlations large enough to be significant at the .05 level with 1960 population, books per capita in 1960, and total expenditures per capita in 1960. In other words, those communities with the largest rate of population growth between 1960 and 1965 were those with a lower population and with poorer per capita service originally. It is understandable that the communities larger in 1960 would have a slower rate of growth, because most of their area was probably filled and further expansion was impossible. Population increase had a zero correlation with percent non-white, but .47 with percent of the population under 18, a figure that is significant at the .01 level. So we have a picture of fast-growing, probably smaller communities, with a high proportion of children, a low level of library service to begin with, and no significant improvement between 1960 and 1966.

Percent non-white has negative correlations significant at the .05 level with tax rate, hours open per week, book expenditures per capita in 1966, and total expenditures per capita in 1966. The other two per capita measures of service lack only .01 of being significant. Percent non-white is negatively correlated at the .01 level of significance with community social rank, percent "white collar," and median school years completed. Communities with higher percentages of non-whites tend to be ranked lower on the socio-economic scale, and to have library service at the lowest levels. All the library variables decrease in size, most particularly those which measure service, as the number of non-whites increases.

As bad as the library picture is for the communities with higher proportions of non-whites, the implications shown for those with a large proportion of children is even worse. Percent of the population under 18 has no particular correlation with the community classification or the separate socio-economic variables. But it does have a significant negative correlation with almost every other variable. Percent of the population under 18 has negative correlations significant at the .05 level with:

Tax Rate
Non-Book Resources
Professional Salaries
Percent Change 1960-1966 in Books Per Capita

It has negative correlations significant at the .01 level with:

Registered Borrowers
Hours Open Per Week
Full-Time Staff
Professional Staff
Non-Professional Staff
Books
Volumes Added
Total Circulation
Tax Income
Total Income
Non-Professional Salaries
Expenditures for Book Materials
Expenditures for Non-Book Materials
1965 Population Estimate
1960 Population
Assessed Valuation, 1965
Total Expenditures
Books Per Capita, 1966
Tax Income Per Capita, 1966
Book Expenditures Per Capita, 1966
Total Expenditures Per Capita, 1966
Books Per Capita, 1960
Tax Income Per Capita, 1960
Total Expenditures Per Capita, 1960

It has been previously mentioned that percent of the population under 18 has a positive correlation significant at the .01 level with percent of population increase 1960-1965, so these are also the "rapidly-growing" communities.

A model might be constructed from these results of a relatively small suburban community, increasing rapidly in size, with a high proportion of children under 18. Library service was poor, as measured by per capita figures, in 1960, and the situation has not improved during the six years of rapid growth. Assessed valuation is low, the library tax rate is at a low level, and the library income is therefore low. Because of this financial picture, the existing library is small, with a small collection, few staff members, open only a few hours per week, and spends little for books. One would, of course, expect small communities to have small collections, but at least the per capita measures could show income and expenditures comparable on this basis to the larger communities. However, in these rapidly expanding towns this is not the case.

An examination of the correlation coefficients for population with other variables reveals that while size relates to variables such as total income and expenditures no correlation is found between size and tax rate or size and the per capita service measures. Assessed valuation is related to size, library income and expenditures, but not to tax rate or per capita income and expenditures.

The four variables measuring the percent change between 1960 and 1966 in the per capita service indicators have some significant correlations with other variables. All had high positive correlations with tax rate and hours open per week. The percent change in tax income per capita and total income per capita between 1960 and 1966 was positively related to books, tax income and total expenditures per capita in 1966.

Percent change in books per capita was correlated at the .01 level of significance with volumes added, total expenditures per capita in 1966, and book expenditures per capita in 1960 and 1966. Percent change in tax income per capita between 1960 and 1966 was correlated at the .05 level of significance with percent change in books per capita.

Percent change in tax income per capita, and in book expenditures per capita, had significant correlations with book expenditures per capita in 1966. In fact the upward change in per capita tax income was very highly correlated with a change upward in total expenditures and book expenditures per capita.

Increases in the tax rate would seem to be the precipitating factor here; following it would come the increase in tax income per capita for the library. Once tax income per capita increases so do expenditures as a whole and expenditures for books. If book expenditures per capita were already high in 1960, the books per capita figure is more likely to show an increase in the six years. Those communities which already had good service tended to improve.

The correlations of the tax rate variable itself are high with all those variables tied to income, such as book expenditures, salaries, and the per capita measures. It also has a positive correlation coefficient of .42 with percent "white collar" and with median years of school completed. At the same time there is no significant relationship between tax rate and median income or assessed valuation. Tax rate can be construed as a measure of community "opinion" on library services, an important point to remember.

Books per capita in 1966 had high correlations with the other per capita measures. It also had high correlations with the tax rate, the hours open per week, books, the community classification variable, percent "white collar," and median school years. It had a -.35 correlation with percent under 18, -.19 with non-white, and -.15 with the percentage of population increase.

Book expenditures per capita in 1966 had high correlations with the same variables, with the addition of volumes added, tax income, total expenditures, and non-resident fees.

Tax income per capita in 1966, in addition to the above variables, had high correlations with the number of registered borrowers, full-time staff, professional staff and salaries, and expenditures on non-book materials.

Expenditures per capita in 1966 followed a pattern similar to the other three per capita measures in its correlations with the community variables.

The correlations of these four per capita measures with the community classification variable help bring out the relationship between type of community and its expectations and willingness to support library service. The correlation with tax rate makes this evident as well.

The community classification variable (social rank) has correlation coefficients significant at the .01 level with:

Tax Rate
Tax Income
Total Income
Total Expenditures
Registered Borrowers
Hours Open Per Week

Full-Time Staff
Professional Staff and Professional Salaries
Books
Volumes Added
Total Circulation
Expenditures for Book Materials
Expenditures for Non-Book Materials
Non-Resident Fees
Books Per Capita, 1966 and 1960
Tax Income Per Capita, 1966 and 1960
Total Expenditures Per Capita, 1966 and 1960
Book Expenditures Per Capita, 1966 and 1960

Non-professional salaries had a correlation with social rank that is significant at the .05 level. Percent non-white in the population has a negative correlation with community social rank large enough to be significant at the .01 level. The high correlations between social rank and library measures seem to indicate clearly that librarians should become more aware of social class as an explanatory element in library service levels.

It is interesting to note that community social rank has no correlation with size or increase in size, nor with assessed valuation. Population does not seem to be the explanatory variable.

In the terms of this study, the relationship between the social rank of a community and the per capita measures of service is the most significant. A higher tax rate is involved here also. This clearly bears out the hypothesis that certain types of communities will provide themselves with a higher level of library service.

As a matter of interest, the correlation coefficient matrices for the Social Rank Group 1 and Group 7 were prepared, marked for significance of the coefficients, and compared. There were some differences in the correlations of the variables between the two disparate community groups. In Social Rank Group 7, the highest group, median income had large negative correlations with tax rate, hours open per week, and the four per capita measures of service for both 1960 and 1966. In Social Rank Group 1 the only large correlations of median income were negative ones with percent non-white (-.92) and percent under 18 (-.49).

In Group 7, percent of population change had a highly significant correlation with percent change in books per capita between 1960 and 1966. The percent of population change in Social Rank Group 1 had correlation only with percent under 18 years of age.

Within Group 1, percent of the population under 18 had significant negative correlation coefficients with tax rate, staff, hours open, and the four per capita service measures for 1960 and 1966. No library support, use or service variables were correlated with percent children in Social Rank Group 7.

The configuration of correlations in the lower class communities shows a low median income, higher percentages of non-whites and children. These communities are probably growing, and have low levels of library support and service. They also had poor library service in 1960. Communities high on the social rank scale tend to increase their books per capita as their population expands. Within these communities, also, the percent of population under 18 does not affect levels of library support or service, while in the low social rank communities the percent of the population under 18 was tied to depressed levels of support and service. In the upper class communities, a very high level of family income can be linked with less support for the public library.

References to Chapter IV

[1] Correlation coefficients significant at the .05 and .01 levels were checked against a standard table. Degree of freedom was found for each pair by N - 2; N not being constant in the missing data program. The computer printout gave N for each coefficient. Oliver L. Lacey, Statistical Methods in Experimentation (New York: Macmillan, 1953), Table E, p. 245.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS: FACTOR ANALYSIS

Although an examination of the correlation matrix produces many interesting conclusions, the results of the statistical manipulations performed by the digital computer in factoring are more authoritative.

The computer program produced five factors, or conglomerates of variables, that accounted for a total of 80.34 percent of the variance. Table 9 gives by name the variables associated with each factor. Appendix D gives the factor loadings for each variable with each of the factors. Some of the correlations are negative, indicating an inverse relationship with other variables associated with the factor. The loadings should be read across for each variable, as well as down the factor columns, to see the relative involvement of the variable in the different factors. For instance, Variable 6 has a loading of .708 in the first factor, but also has a loading of -.337 in Factor IV. Clearly its importance in each factor is qualified by its involvement in the other.

The percent of the total variance accounted for by each factor is also given in Appendix D. At the bottom of the page is a matrix of correlations for the five primary factors. This indicates the extent of any interrelationship among the factors. Maximum explanatory power occurs when factors are independent. Low correlations are the more desirable ones here and fortunately none of these are high enough to be troublesome. Factor I and Factor II are somewhat related; this will be discussed later.

In addition to knowing the loadings of the variable with the factors, it is desirable to have some idea of the importance of the variable within the factor.

> One practical use of the contributions of variables to the variance of a factor is to measure their relative importance for predictive purposes. In building a psychological test, for example, many items might be analyzed by factorial methods, and then the question might arise about the "importance"

TABLE 9

VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH EACH FACTOR

Factor I	Proportion of Variance	Correlation with Factor
Total Expenditures	.0177	.931
Tax Income	.0172	.939
Volumes Added	.0170	.779
Books	.0168	.935
Total Income	.0167	.935
Expenditures for Books	.0165	.822
Circulation	.0161	.917
Full-Time Staff	.0154	.971
Registered Borrowers	.0152	.893
Non-Professional Salaries	.0145	.971
Professional Staff	.0136	.708
Expenditures for Non-Book Materials	.0133	.868
Non-Professional Staff	.0125	.995
Professional Salaries	.0124	.597
1965 Population	.0124	1.153
1960 Population	.0124	1.146
Hours Open	.0118	.282
Assessed Valuation	.0100	.947
Tax Income Per Capita	.0079	-.184
Expenditures Per Capita	.0079	-.208
Book Expenditures Per Capita	.0056	-.324
Non-Books	.0052	.687
Books Per Capita	.0049	-.328
Percent of Population Under 18	.0027	-.283
Factor II		
Book Expenditures Per Capita	.0290	-1.100
Books Per Capita	.0257	-1.079
Expenditures Per Capita	.0251	-1.088
Tax Income Per Capita	.0226	-1.077
Tax Rate	.0160	-.988
1960 Population	.0149	.357
1965 Population	.0147	.369
Median Income	.0121	.412
Non-Resident Fees	.0117	-.675
Assessed Valuation	.0088	.230
Hours Open	.0056	-.690
Non-Resident Borrowers	.0007	-.338
Volumes Added	.0001	-.235

TABLE 9 (contd.)

Factor III	Proportion of Variance	Correlation with Factor
Median Income	.0733	1.015
Community Classification	.0399	.902
Percent White-Collar	.0391	.932
Median Years of School	.0365	.927
Percent Non-White	.0028	-.518
Factor IV		
Percent of Population Increase	.0932	.250
Non-Books	.0207	.510
Professional Salaries	.0136	-.353
Percent Non-White	.0104	-.564
Non-Resident Borrowers	.0087	.418
Professional Staff	.0073	-.338
Factor V		
Percent of Population Increase	.0844	.811
Percent of Population Under 18	.0061	.676
Books Per Capita	.0030	-.211

> of the different items. A simple measure of validity is the correlation of an item with the factor. However, a much better indicator is the total contribution of an item to the variance of the computed factor.[1]

This total contribution of an item to the factor may be easily computed from the principal axis matrix by squaring the correlation coefficient of the variable and dividing the result by the variance of the factor. The end product, when compared with those for the other variables, gives a measure of the relative importance of each to the factor. Table 8 also gives the proportion of the variance each variable accounts for within the factor and the correlation coefficient for each.

Factor I, accounting for 52.81 percent of the variance, is the largest and most important complex of interrelated variables. It might be termed the "size factor," for most of the variables associated with it are measures of size.

Population, tax and total income, expenditures and assessed valuation are all indicators of sheer size. Large collections and staffs, with high total circulation figures, are also products of size. However, tax rate, which is some indication of a willingness to support service, does not show a correlation with this "size factor." Most important, service levels, as measured by the per capita tax income, book expenditures, total expenditures, and books, are a part of the factor, but with negative loadings. Though they account for a lesser part of the variance within the factor, the conclusion is clear that size and service per capita are inversely related. This implies, via the model, that community types are independent of population, or perhaps negatively associated.

Factor II brings out more clearly what is implied in the "size complex." The four service variables, tax rate, and hours open are shown in a close relationship. This cluster of service and support varies inversely with community size, as measured by population. At the same time, size of non-resident fees for library usage and numbers of non-resident borrowers go up with per capita books, tax income, books, and total expenditures. Median income, one of the components of the social rank community classification scheme, seems to be inversely related to service. This is understandable when the discussion of correlation coefficients for Social Rank Group 7 is recalled. Median income had high negative correlations with tax rate, hours open and the four per capita service measures. This is not surprising considering the nature of homes in these communities (e.g., larger home libraries). Up to Group 7 this is not found and, in fact, an increase in income level, to a point, is associated with better library service.

The matrix of correlations for the primary factors gives a loading of -.664 for Factors I and II. Thus there is one more piece of evidence for the negative balance between "size" and "service and support."

The third factor is primarily a social rank complex, with high loadings for the community classification measures, in conjunction with a negative loading for the percent non-white in the population. This is quite predictable.

Factor IV is more difficult to interpret. It seems to show that population increase is inversely related to size of professional staff and amount spent on professional salaries. Also the rapidly growing suburban communities have lower numbers of non-whites. Or to put it another way, non-white communities are not those with the most rapid rate of growth. However, the Negro census tracts in some communities may be growing, but this is masked in the figures for the towns as a whole. The appearance of number of non-book materials and non-resident borrowers inversely tied to professional staff is a dilemma. However, number of non-resident borrowers was part of the "service and support" factor, as opposed to the "size" factor, which included professional staff.

The last factor clearly offers further evidence that the communities growing most rapidly are those with a larger proportion of children, and that these same communities may be those with poorer library service.

References to Chapter V

[1] Harman, op. cit., p. 359.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A number of conclusions of interest to public library development may be drawn from this study. The highest rates of population growth in the Chicago SMSA are occurring in the "middle class" suburbs, and the least amount of population expansion is in the "upper class" communities. Community size is not related to social rank, and sheer size is not related to use or support of library service, when use is measured by registered borrowers and support by tax rate and per capita tax income. This bears out a conclusion offered by Sokolow, who found that:

> Great increases in population and assessed valuation were not associated with higher per capita tax incomes in 1959.[1]

The Rockwoods also had reservations about size and library use.

> . . . classification by size . . . does not consider variations in public library service which exist from one city to another . . . some have suggested that volumes in the collection be used as the guide to size. Size . . . does not bear a necessarily close relation to usefulness. . . .[2]

The per capita measures of service and tax rate did have a relationship to the community social rank classification, supporting the hypothesis that there is a difference in levels of library service and support among groups of communities. There was some indication that the highest income level communities offer somewhat less financial support to the public library. Berelson pointed out that, with the exception of the very wealthy, greater relative use of library service is associated with higher personal income.[3] Armstrong, in a report on library finance for the Public Library Inquiry, while talking about personal income, formal schooling, and availability of library service, said:

> It is a reasonable hypothesis that these and other conditions favorable to the use of a public library by members of the public will create the climate and the drive for increased

> public library support; together they provide a crude index of public ability and willingness to pay for public library service.[4]

While not of central interest to the study as it was originally conceived, some important correlations were brought out by inclusion of two census characteristics in the community variables. It is evident that library service available to suburban non-whites is poor. This is perhaps due to the occupational level, educational attainment, and personal income characteristics of their communities. However, the causes of such inadequate library service are not of central importance. What is important is that there is a great need here, greater than in more prosperous communities, and the library profession and society as a whole should seek some feasible way to correct the situation.

The second disturbing result of the study is the overwhelming evidence that library service to the rapidly expanding, child-filled suburban communities is even worse than the service to non-white areas. These are generally small, new communities with low assessed valuations and a low library tax rate. Tax rate is the precipitating factor for poor service; money is, after all, the key to staff and books. Due to the dependence of the library on the property tax, there is a crucial lag in availability of money for library expansion as the smaller communities rapidly fill with young families. It takes time to secure approval of an increase in the library tax rate, which is usually necessary, either from the electorate or the city council. Even after approval there is a year's wait before application of the new rate produces funds. At the same time there is a lag in the amount of assessed valuation that forms the property tax base.

Actually the cause of the "library gap" in service to children is not as important as the fact that the gap exists, for whatever reason. Greater concern for the prompt provision of library service to rapidly expanding communities, coupled with a freeing of the public library from total dependence on the local property tax base, is needed. While this dependency cannot be ended rapidly, there is a great deal more that librarians and those concerned with the importance of library service could do with the existing financial necessity. According to Armstrong:

> There are significant differences between towns, cities, states, and regions in their per capita expenditures for their libraries. Community

> financial support is not static; it moves up or down through a period of years. The differences and changes in support have causes. If librarians can locate them they may be able to understand, if not control, the factors which lead to public library expansion and to its opposite.[5]

Even when assessed valuation and personal income levels are high, library service does not necessarily benefit:

> An obvious assumption is that public libraries prosper best in those communities with the greatest taxable wealth. But with library expenditures so small an item in the general governmental budget, ability to pay may not be the single determining factor in public library expansion . . .[6]

Armstrong worked out a formula and charted actual support as opposed to projected support, only to find that it deviated substantially in many states, and he concluded that the divergences were due to other factors influencing support.

> The problem of inadequate library support, then, is not so much inadequate community incomes as inadequate community education, and inadequate political and administrative ingenuity among librarians and library supporters.[7]

Support may depend on public opinion regarding education, or may depend on demographic variables like large family size, which crimps the budget.

It would be well at this point to enter some cautions about conclusions based on a statistical study of this nature, particularly a factor analytical solution. The discovery of a discernible relation between census characteristics of communities and their level of library service does not mean that there is a direct causal relationship between these traits, though this is possible. Rather, it should be apparent that a factor analysis, like any other statistical correlation, can only set the stage for explaining these relationships. The many activities involved in allocating financial resources for any form of local service or facility, including the library, represent local policies and practices which themselves should be analyzed. The present findings simply suggest certain pre-conditions which apparently enter into the development of local practices and which are ultimately reflected in the differences among metropolitan area localities in indices of community services. This implies a sociological model, useful for understanding relationships.

Despite these necessary reservations, factor analysis remains a highly useful tool for the researcher interested in finding the broadest dimensions of association among whole sets of variables. Any clustering or patterning of the variables, which would be much harder to deduce with any certainty using other techniques, is more clearly revealed. The usefulness of the present study may lie not as much in the conclusions drawn as in the demonstration of the value of factor analysis to a field where it has had little previous usage. The two major approaches to research, the statistical and the case study, should be used more often in library research as complementary, and not as mutually exclusive techniques.

It would be most interesting to test the predictive qualities of this study by applying the approach to an analysis of public library service in other SMSA's. Can it be shown that the relationship between greater levels of service, as measured by per capita figures, and higher social rank groupings, persists in other suburban rings? Is there always a higher correlation between inadequate or non-existent library service and populations with higher numbers of children than there is between poor service and Negro populations?

Some case studies of variant communities would be a valuable follow-up to this study. These communities, whose level of library service is well above or far below the mean for their social rank group, must be influenced by some factor or set of factors. It may, of course, prove to be impossible to say with any certainty that Community X differs radically in its provision (or failure to provide) of library service because of Factor Y. It may only be possible to let evidence of its differences stand alone, with no offering of causal factors, but the rewards of success are too valuable to be lost by not attempting an explanation.

References to Chapter VI

[1] Alvin D. Sokolow, Community Determinants of Library Tax Incomes in Illinois, Research Report Series Number 3 (Springfield, Ill.: Illinois State Library, 1963), p. 49.

[2] Rockwood, _op_. _cit_., p. 1.

[3] Bernard Berelson, _The Library's Public_ (New York: Columbia University Press, 1949), p. 37.

[4] Charles M. Armstrong, _Money for Libraries: a Report on Library Finance_ (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), p. 46.

[5] _Ibid_.

[6] _Ibid_.

[7] _Ibid_., p. 56.

APPENDIX A

COMMUNITIES IN THE STUDY, BY SOCIAL RANK CLASSIFICATION

Social Rank 1

Argo-Summit
Crest Hill
Dixmoor
East Chicago Heights
Fox Lake
Harvard
Highwood
Lemont
Lockport
Long Lake
North Chicago
Phoenix
Posen
Robbins
Romeoville
Sauk Village
South Chicago Heights
Steger
Wilmington

Social Rank 2

Alsip
Aurora
Blue Island
Bridgeview
Calumet City
Carpentersville
Chicago Heights
Cicero
Dundee
Elgin
Forest Park
Gages Lake
Harvey
Hometown
Joliet
Marengo
Melrose Park
Palos Hills
Round Lake Beach
Round Lake Park

Social Rank 2 (contd.)

Stickney-Forest View
Stone Park
Streamwood
Thornton
Warrenville
Wauconda
Waukegan
West Chicago
Wheeling
Wonder Lake
Woodstock

Social Rank 3

Batavia
Bensenville
Berwyn
Calumet Park
Cary
Chicago Ridge
Dolton
Franklin Park
Harwood Heights
Hickory Hills
Justice
Lyons
Markham
Maywood
Midlothian
North Lake
Oak Forest
River Grove
St. Charles
Schiller Park
South Elgin
Tinley Park
Westmont
Winthrop Harbor
Wood Dale

APPENDIX A (contd.)

Social Rank 4

Addison
Bellwood
Berkely
Broadview
Brookfield
Crete
Grayslake
Hillside
Lake Zurich
Lansing
Lisle
McHenry
Matteson
Mundelein
Norridge
North Riverside
Orland Park
Rolling Meadows
Roselle
South Holland

Social Rank 5

Barrington
Country Club Hills
Crystal Lake
Des Plaines
Downers Grove
Elk Grove Village
Elmwood Park
Evergreen Park
Geneva
Hazel Crest
Hoffman Estates
Itasca
Libertyville
Lombard
Naperville
Niles
Oak Lawn
Palatine
Villa Park

Social Rank 6

Arlington Heights
Clarendon Hills
Deerfield
Elmhurst
Evanston
Glen Ellyn
Homewood
La Grange
La Grange Park
Lake Forest
Morton Grove
Mount Prospect
Oak Park
Palos Heights
Park Forest
Park Ridge
Riverside
Skokie
Westchester
Wheaton

Social Rank 7

Flossmoor
Glencoe
Glenview
Highland Park
Hinsdale
Kenilworth
Lake Bluff
Lincolnwood
Northbrook
Northfield
River Forest
Western Springs
Wilmette
Winnetka

APPENDIX B

MEANS FOR THE STUDY GROUP AND SOCIAL RANK SUB-GROUPS, BY VARIABLES

Social Rank	Registered Borrowers	Non-Resident Borrowers	Hours Open Per Week	Full-Time Staff	Professional Staff	Non-Prof. Staff	Tax Rate
Universe	7218	367	37.5	4.7	1.7	3.0	.065
1	1878	151	17.0	1.0	.4	.5	.027
2	7533	445	36.1	6.2	1.4	4.8	.059
3	4475	125	31.2	2.0	.9	1.2	.062
4	4283	402	33.2	2.4	1.1	1.3	.061
5	10142	772	51.4	4.7	1.7	2.7	.083
6	16849	412	54.9	10.8	4.4	6.3	.086
7	7752	414	47.1	6.1	2.3	3.8	.086

Social Rank	Books	Volumes Added	Non-Book Resources	Total Circulation	Tax Income	Total Income
Universe	25815	2603	2575	100490	47801	57098
1	7677	590	807	18160	8900	16379
2	27870	2425	5076	100676	55985	64509
3	14652	2002	624	45743	30652	39769
4	13017	1560	1071	50142	19244	23386
5	29167	3463	2415	132030	55494	68947
6	61439	5544	3725	260701	106026	128801
7	34012	3306	2462	148585	65916	76238

APPENDIX B (contd.)

Social Rank	Professional Salaries	Non-Prof. Salaries	Expenditures for Book Materials	Expenditures for Non-Book Materials	Total Expenditures	Assessed Valuation, 1965, in Thousands
Universe	13254	15163	9522	1464	49666	64331
1	1930	2514	1827	322	8968	49899
2	8379	22948	9209	1706	55551	79305
3	6297	7026	6462	735	28424	41497
4	5988	5674	4902	530	20990	35448
5	13480	23368	12481	1625	61991	72222
6	39154	33700	22093	3843	12272	117293
7	28407	15409	12491	2038	69006	70393

Social Rank	1965 Population Estimate	Percent of Population Inc. 1960-65	1960 Population	Percent White Collar	Median Years School	Median Income	Percent Non-White
Universe	17280	31.9	14063	44.6	11.9	8674	4.0
1	8861	23.3	7229	23.3	9.9	6366	19.2
2	22996	26.6	19060	32.7	11.0	7229	2.0
3	13301	29.3	10762	33.0	11.2	7736	2.1
4	11029	33.1	8641	43.6	12.1	8014	.3
5	20724	38.0	15276	53.7	12.4	8518	.3
6	30583	17.3	26583	67.7	13.2	9928	1.5
7	14255	16.9	12188	78.9	14.7	16360	1.2

APPENDIX B (contd.)

Social Rank	Percent Under 18	Books Per Capita, 1966	Tax Income Per Capita, 1966	Total Expen. Per Capita, 1966	Book Expen. Per Capita, 1966	Percent Change 60-66 in Books Per Capita	Non-Resident Fees
Universe	39.6	1.38	2.22	2.42	.49	24.6	1.7
1	40.5	.69	.79	.80	.15	-.7	1.0
2	39.5	1.10	1.77	2.02	.34	19.7	1.3
3	40.2	1.03	2.00	1.97	.44	35.5	1.2
4	40.2	1.28	1.71	1.98	.48	34.0	1.4
5	41.0	1.60	2.97	3.29	.70	33.8	2.1
6	37.8	1.92	3.27	3.68	.68	41.4	2.6
7	37.7	2.20	3.88	4.20	.81	15.6	2.7

APPENDIX C

MATRIX OF CORRELATIONS COEFFICIENTS FOR U

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	1	100									
	2	049	100								
	3	031	037	100							
	4	077	073	034	100						
	5	043	079	025	060	100					
	6	045	078	019	056	082	100				
	7	036	069	023	052	095	063	100			
	8	049	088	026	067	093	086	084	100		
	9	061	087	031	073	086	081	077	087	100	
	10	029	045	022	039	052	026	059	052	046	100
V	11	049	090	031	067	090	083	082	095	086	049
	12	055	088	026	068	[illegible]	084	082	093	092	056
A	13	051	085	027	067	090	082	082	092	091	054
	14	046	074	017	056	074	087	058	081	077	022
R	15	042	080	029	059	090	068	089	085	086	062
	16	054	087	027	068	084	083	073	086	097	045
I	17	036	075	020	055	082	078	074	082	084	039
	18	032	087	026	058	080	066	078	085	077	051
A	19	-007	-017	-009	-018	-014	-014	-011	-018	-010	-012
	20	032	085	026	057	082	067	079	086	075	053
B	21	027	072	019	052	070	063	065	074	067	046
	22	066	031	028	059	032	038	025	041	036	023
L	23	083	045	026	073	044	048	035	049	058	028
	24	077	045	034	073	043	049	033	048	057	025
E	25	051	089	028	069	092	087	083	094	094	050
	26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
S	27	047	048	013	059	039	043	032	046	057	018
	28	074	036	034	064	032	037	025	035	056	017
	29	039	036	012	043	026	036	017	033	041	002
	30	042	039	018	046	031	038	023	037	042	008
	31	042	031	013	042	024	030	017	029	034	003
	32	005	006	-005	007	006	010	003	008	008	000
	33	061	031	033	057	033	033	027	042	032	024
	34	070	046	034	070	046	046	039	053	055	022
	35	070	041	030	062	036	041	029	044	051	016
	36	072	050	036	072	048	049	041	056	057	028
	37	030	014	-011	025	006	019	000	-009	025	-001
	38	039	013	003	029	009	012	006	009	013	017
	39	027	009	018	021	011	005	012	008	015	034
	40	031	003	002	020	000	006	-002	000	006	004
	41	-021	-011	-004	-022	-007	-008	-005	-007	-012	-004
	42	-023	-030	-016	-033	-035	-030	-034	-041	-026	-023

m

APPENDIX C (contd.)

		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	1										
	2										
	3										
	4										
	5										
	6										
	7										
	8										
	9										
	10										
V	11	100									
	12	090	100								
A	13	089	097	100							
	14	082	079	077	100						
R	15	083	089	088	061	100					
	16	084	093	092	079	085	100				
I	17	074	086	085	068	085	086	100			
	18	083	086	085	060	081	078	073	100		
A	19	-016	-015	-016	-013	-014	-011	-014	-014	100	
	20	083	086	085	060	080	076	073	[illegible]	-022	100
B	21	068	076	075	057	068	069	067	081	-015	081
	22	033	032	031	035	026	031	028	005	-015	010
L	23	046	057	054	049	042	054	043	025	-014	026
	24	046	049	050	048	042	052	044	020	-015	023
E	25	091	097	096	081	091	095	090	085	-017	086
	26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
S	27	051	049	046	057	037	053	038	030	-002	027
	28	034	040	039	039	032	052	034	010	-001	010
	29	039	031	030	046	021	038	027	016	-006	015
	30	043	035	036	046	027	040	031	020	-013	020
	31	036	026	028	041	018	031	020	011	-006	011
	32	010	008	008	017	003	008	007	-001	-014	000
	33	034	032	033	034	025	028	026	015	-021	019
	34	050	053	053	055	043	052	048	030	-018	032
	35	042	042	043	045	036	047	039	020	-014	021
	36	053	053	053	054	044	053	048	031	-021	033
	37	009	012	013	013	009	020	012	-001	-004	000
	38	010	016	014	007	012	011	005	003	-009	004
	39	006	014	013	002	014	016	010	009	-015	012
	40	002	002	005	001	004	003	000	-008	-005	-006
	41	-008	-008	-009	-008	-005	-010	-004	-006	000	-004
	42	-031	-033	-032	-024	-030	-025	-031	-034	047	-040

APPENDIX C (contd.)

		21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
	1											
	2											
	3											
	4											
	5											
	6											
	7											
	8											
	9											
	10											
V	11											
	12											
A	13											
	14											
R	15											
	16											
I	17											
	18											
A	19											
	20											
B	21	100										
	22	013	100									
L	23	031	076	100								
	24	026	083	091	100							
E	25	075	034	053	054	100						
	26	-	-	-	-	-	100					
S	27	039	035	051	049	051	-	100				
	28	015	072	082	083	041	-	047	100			
	29	015	044	046	052	036	-	065	053	100		
	30	020	047	049	053	040	-	062	051	092	100	
	31	013	047	045	052	031	-	061	049	086	090	100
	32	003	013	015	016	010	-	056	011	060	063	061
	33	020	088	072	073	033	-	032	060	033	040	039
	34	033	074	085	083	054	-	051	075	054	057	053
	35	023	075	078	078	045	-	058	078	055	054	053
	36	034	080	085	086	055	-	057	076	057	060	056
	37	001	020	020	027	015	-	005	031	017	016	021
	38	002	022	035	030	012	-	-004	023	-003	004	005
	39	004	007	019	018	013	-	-007	022	-006	000	-001
	40	-009	021	021	038	005	-	-016	019	-007	-002	005
	41	-002	-019	-019	-020	-008	-	-008	-022	-027	-031	-038
	42	-030	-035	-030	-028	-034	-	001	-016	-011	-017	001

APPENDIX C (contd.)

		32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42
	1											
	2											
	3											
	4											
	5											
	6											
	7											
	8											
	9											
	10											
V	11											
	12											
A	13											
	14											
R	15											
	16											
I	17											
	18											
A	19											
	20											
B	21											
	22											
L	23											
	24											
E	25											
	26											
S	27											
	28											
	29											
	30											
	31											
	32	100										
	33	015	100									
	34	022	074	100								
	35	017	069	089	100							
	36	023	080	095	088	100						
	37	-003	-013	013	035	017	100					
	38	-011	023	-001	006	008	021	100				
	39	-008	015	000	-011	002	-005	069	100			
	40	-011	015	-001	002	-004	026	064	046	100		
	41	-018	-014	-014	-017	-015	-016	-014	-009	-015	100	
	42	-013	-041	-031	-019	-034	022	-003	-013	006	017	100

APPENDIX D

MATRIX OF FACTORS. OBLIMAX ROTATION OF PRINCIPAL AXIS.

		Factors				
		I	II	III	IV	V
	1.	-.085	-.987	-.114	.113	.070
	2.	.893	-.009	.055	.039	.045
	3.	.151	-.337	-.069	.417	.014
	4.	.281	-.690	-.025	.152	-.012
	5.	.970	.038	-.022	.003	.004
	6.	.708	-.149	-.007	-.337	-.035
	7.	.994	.152	-.022	.167	.021
	8.	.935	-.031	.015	-.041	-.070
	9.	.779	-.234	-.009	-.039	.090
V	10.	.687	.059	-.052	.510	-.019
a	11.	.916	.021	.102	-.014	.021
r	12.	.939	-.063	-.027	-.024	.007
i	13.	.934	-.047	-.022	-.017	.017
a	14.	.597	-.160	.121	-.353	.017
b	15.	.970	.041	-.040	.131	.025
l	16.	.822	-.158	-.014	-.099	.078
e	17.	.868	.007	-.041	-.161	-.034
	18.	1.153	.369	.010	.142	-.003
	19.	.036	.155	-.091	.250	.810
	20.	1.145	.357	.006	.128	-.092
	21.	.947	.229	-.009	.021	-.066
	22.	-.328	-1.078	-.035	.046	-.211
	23.	-.183	-1.076	-.063	-.008	-.063
	24.	-.207	-1.087	-.028	.001	-.094
	25.	.930	-.067	.000	-.071	-.003
	26.	.154	-.674	.108	.084	.145
	27.	-.323	-1.100	-.030	.020	.022
	28.	-.034	-.102	.902	.053	.029
	29.	.022	-.091	.931	.130	-.036
	30.	-.080	-.126	.926	.150	.053
	31.	.026	.411	1.014	.130	-.142
	32.	.033	.028	-.517	-.564	-.081
	33.	-.282	.149	-.043	-.166	.676
Percentage of Total Variance by Factor		52.81	14.01	6.51	3.80	3.20

Total: 80.34

APPENDIX D (contd.)

Primary Factor Correlations -	I.	1.000				
	II.	-.644	1.000			
	III.	.317	-.533	1.000		
	IV.	-.150	.097	-.307	1.000	
	V.	.026	-.107	.139	-.202	1.000

APPENDIX E

SUBURBAN COMMUNITIES AND PUBLIC LIBRARY SERVICE: ILLINOIS PORTION OF THE ST. LOUIS SMSA

Upon completion of the statistical analysis of the Chicago Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area community and library characteristics, it was decided that some application of the results as a predictive as well as a descriptive model might be attempted. Twenty-four communities in Madison and St. Clair counties, the Illinois portions of the St. Louis Metropolitan Area, were used. Eight other communities with some amount of library service could not be used since their 1960 population had been under 2,500 and census characteristics were not available for comparison.

Library statistics were gathered from the 1967 statistics issue of Illinois Libraries. Community variables came from the 1960 census. Estimates of the 1965 population were based on work done at the Edwardsville campus of Southern Illinois University. In some cases special census figures taken near the 1965 to 1966 dates were used. Percent of population increase and the four per capita measures were calculated using the 1965 population.

No community in the area ranked higher than Group 4 on the Social Rank Scale. Thirteen of 24 were in Social Rank 1, the lowest category. Of these thirteen, only six had public library service.

The statements made by Anita Schiller in her 1965 study of library service in the Illinois portion of the St. Louis Metropolitan Area are again supported by this compilation of statistics.[1] Many residents of the counties have no public library service, and those who do are not well served.

As with the Chicago area, when the communities are divided into groups according to the social rank scale, the means for the library tax rate, hours open, books per capita, tax income per capita, book expenditures per capita, and total expenditures per capita progress downward as the social rank decreases. This is of course affected by the large number of communities with no public library service in Social Rank 1, but as a group or composite portrayal of library service it is valid.

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[1] Anita R. Schiller. Library Service in the Illinois Portion of the St. Louis Metropolitan Area (Research Series: No. 7). Springfield: Illinois State Library, 1966, 93 p.

APPENDIX E (contd.)

Within each social rank group there are communities with somewhat better library service, as measured by tax rate and per capita income and expenditures. These individual communities fit the other model that emerged from the Chicago area study. They are generally smaller, more stable communities, not faced with a high rate of population growth nor a large proportion of children.

On the other hand, these communities with a rapid rate of population increase from 1960 to 1965 have more children and a lower level of support and service. Library service and support in the communities with a sizeable Negro population is also poor.

The figures for library service in the communities of Madison and St. Clair counties represent only a part of the total suburban ring of the St. Louis SMSA, and a low socio-economic part at that. It is extremely difficult to make valid tests of assumptions on such a small and unrepresentative segment of an area. Certainly this group is too small to do any further structuring using computer methods.

SUBURBAN COMMUNITIES IN THE ILLINOIS PORTION OF THE ST. LOUIS SMSA

With Libraries

1. Alton
2. Belleville
3. Bethalto --a
4. Cahokia
5. Caseyville --b
6. Collinsville
7. East Alton
8. East St. Louis
9. Edwardsville
10. Granite City
11. Hartford --b
12. Highland
13. Lebanon
14. Madison
15. Marissa --b
16. Mascoutah
17. Millstadt --ab

With Libraries (contd.)

18. New Athens --b
19. O'Fallon
20. Old Marissa --b
21. Roxana --b
22. Troy --ab
23. Venice
24. Wood River

Without Libraries

25. Rosewood Heights --c
26. Cottage Hills --c
27. Fairmont City
28. Centreville
29. Washington Park
30. Alorton
31. Swansea
32. Dupo

a--Association Library; b--Population under 2,500; c--Unincorporated.

APPENDIX E (contd.)

SERVICE AND SUPPORT MEASURES
ST. LOUIS SMSA

	Tax Rate	Hours Open	Books Per Capita	Tax Income Per Capita	Book Exp. Per Capita	Total Exp. Per Capita
Social Rank 4						
Rosewood Hgts.			no library			
Social Rank 3						
Belleville	.094	69	1.40	2.68	.37	2.67
Edwardsville	.113	46	2.11	3.76	.42	3.45
Lebanon	.073	28	2.09	1.09	.34	1.18
O'Fallon	.065	26	2.31	1.47	.17	1.67
$\overline{M}$	.086	42	1.98	2.25	.33	2.24
Social Rank 2						
Alton	.066	68	1.02	1.55	.35	1.73
Cahokia	0	13	.20	0	.06	.22
Collinsville	.118	48	1.16	2.21	.45	2.26
Granite City	.069	60	1.66	2.10	.36	2.07
Wood River	.057	57	2.52	2.35	.59	2.73
Swansea			no library			
$\overline{M}$	.052	41	1.09	1.37	.30	1.50
Social Rank 1						
Bethalto				association library		
East Alton	.045	62	2.03	3.25	.60	3.61
East St. Louis	.051	69	1.23	1.68	.19	1.13
Highland	.115	36	2.35	2.57	.38	3.33
Madison	.074	40	2.63	2.23	.33	2.85
Mascoutah	.072	40	4.19	1.29	.39	1.71
Venice	.045	34	4.16	3.65	.29	2.55
Cottage Hills			no	library		
Fairmont City			"	"		
Centreville			"	"		
Washington Park			"	"		
Alorton			"	"		
Dupo			"	"		
$\overline{M}$	.034	25	1.38	1.22	.18	1.21

Fiscal year 1966.

PART III

PUBLIC OPINION IN ILLINOIS REGARDING PUBLIC LIBRARY SUPPORT AND USE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND METHODOLOGY

It is well-recognized that public opinion plays an important role in determining the status of the public library in its community. As a service institution, the library is dependent on the public, and on public opinion, for the extent of its financial support, the quality and quantity of its resources and services, and the status accorded its staff. Since this is the case, it would seem to be vital to assess public opinion from time to time in order to evaluate the public library's present status and to plan for future developments.

Thorough studies of public opinion, however, have rarely been attempted, even on a local basis, since such studies involve considerable expense as well as some sophistication in research techniques. Moreover, far too many of the studies of public opinion that have been undertaken have used inherently biased samples such as registered borrowers or persons using the library during a certain period of time. Few extensive studies using survey research techniques and random probability samples from total populations have been done. These few studies do tend to show, however, that the public library is, at best, a marginal institution and is not nearly as central to people's lives as some of the studies using self-selected samples of library users seem to indicate.

Methodology

Early in 1968, the University of Illinois Survey Research Laboratory announced plans for an interdisciplinary Omnibus Survey of Illinois households which would allow individual researchers to obtain data on a statewide basis on topics of concern to them, while at the same time reducing the high costs of field survey work by pooling questions from many disciplines into a single questionnaire. From the Survey Research Laboratory, the individual researcher would receive a deck of verified, machine-cleaned IBM cards with responses to his questions, plus responses to a group of standard socioeconomic questions for each respondent.

Several individuals who were working on various parts of the project "Studies in Public Library Government, Organization and Support" then in progress at the Library Research Center, indicated an interest in this Omnibus Survey as a technique for obtaining data on questions related to the overall purposes of the "Studies." Accordingly, a set of questions (shown in Appendix A) was prepared and submitted to the Survey Research Laboratory for inclusion in the 1968 Omnibus Survey.

The sample.--The sample of households for the 1968 Omnibus Survey was drawn from a preselected Illinois Master Sample maintained by the Survey Research Laboratory. The sample drawn was a multi-stage, clustered, area probability sample in which every housing unit in the state had an equal probability of being selected.

In the first stage of selecting housing units, Primary Sampling Units consisting of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas and individual counties or groups of counties were selected with probabilities proportional to size.

In the second stage of sampling, procedures differed between the Chicago SMSA and the rest of the state. In the Chicago area, four strata were delineated--Chicago City, Chicago Fringe, Chicago Rest, and Chicago Non-Urban. Within the first three strata, further stratification was done by race and income. In the fourth stratum, tracts were stratified by distance from the Loop. The tracts were then selected with probabilities proportional to size and chunks of housing units chosen, from which 1,494 housing units were finally selected.

In the rest of the state the first stage of selection yielded almost all of the SMSA's and larger counties plus some rural counties. From these Primary Sampling Units, cities, towns, villages, and unincorporated places were selected with probabilities proportional to size. Selected places were then stratified by availability of directory information and chunks of housing units were systematically selected, from which 1,499 housing units to represent downstate Illinois were finally chosen.

Pretesting.--The accuracy and representativeness of survey research data depend on the quality of the questionnaire as well as the quality of the sample. The Survey Research Laboratory conducted pretests to determine the ability of the proposed questions to communicate their meaning to the general public. Interviews were conducted with 36 respondents from randomly selected households, in Chicago and elsewhere, using the draft questionnaire. Answers and comments given by respondents were used by the individual researchers to revise the draft questions in order to reduce ambiguities.

Interviewing.--The Survey Research Laboratory hired and trained all interviewers for the Omnibus Survey. Interviewers new to these projects attended two sessions while persons with previous experience attended only one session. After training, the interviewers conducted practice interviews and were checked for correct procedures.

Interviewing for the Omnibus Survey was conducted between May 10 and August 10, 1968. A strict procedure of contact and follow-up to the exact housing unit selected was followed. Up to three attempts were made to secure an interview with a respondent from the household selected. As a check on accuracy, 17 percent of all households interviewed were contacted later by telephone to ascertain whether or not an interviewer had been there. No instances of falsification were revealed.

The final percentage of response was 71 percent. While this is somewhat below the desired level, due probably to the season of the year when the interviewing was done, the final sample of 2,031 responses was thought large enough and diverse enough to be representative of the adult population of Illinois and of sub-groups of that population.

Analysis

Four areas of concern were represented in the questions submitted to the Omnibus Survey for this study. The first general area, as presented in Chapter II, is concerned with patron use of the public library and satisfaction with its services. Since the most important goal of the public library is service to patrons, an evaluation of public opinion on the degree of use and satisfaction is clearly crucial. Since this study used a random probability sample of all Illinois households, the findings contribute more valid data, perhaps, on this subject than would a typical survey using an inherently biased sampling frame such as users or cardholders.

Chapter III is concerned with questions of financing public library service, approached from two angles. Reactions to various forms of possible sources of support constitute the first topic. This information is vital for assessing the degree of satisfaction with the present form of taxation, in addition to the willingness to consider alternative forms of support such as state or federal aid or contributions. The second topic of financial concern is the public's willingness to support tax increases for various library improvements.

Knowledge of who will support what provides valuable guidance, for instance, to those persons planning bond issue campaigns.

In Chapter IV, the Illinois public's attitude toward several ideological questions is discussed. The data on disposition toward community review boards is particularly interesting although open to some question. It presents some provocative information on the public's thinking on a central issue, the autonomy of the librarian to select materials.

The final topic of study, in Chapter V, concerns the public's image of the typical public librarian. Information on occupational stereotype is important for assessing the library profession's current status in the mind of the public and its success in projecting a professional image. The concluding chapter summarizes the most important findings on all of these topics and attempts to point out some patterns and trends.

Throughout the report the plan of analysis is similar. First, a survey of opinion is presented on each of the various dependent variables in order to give the reader an overview of the public's views. Secondly, variations of opinion are studied according to selected socioeconomic and demographic variables. Seven independent variables were chosen from those on which data were available. These include respondent's age, sex, and race. Education and income were used as indices of social class. Party affiliation and voting participation were used as political behavior indicators. The goal of this second level of analysis is to reveal some of the more obvious and significant differences among the population in their behavior and attitudes toward important library issues.

CHAPTER II

PATTERNS OF LIBRARY USE AND DISSATISFACTION IN ILLINOIS

by
Kathryn Scarich

The purpose of this chapter is first to define the public library's clientele in terms of social and demographic characteristics and to indicate significant differences affecting the frequency of library use. Secondly, it explores the areas of user satisfaction and dissatisfaction with library services and facilities and tries to delineate the social characteristics of dissatisfied library patrons with an eye to suggesting areas of improvement.

To determine who uses the public library, one must first look at the services offered. The public library primarily offers recreational and educational material to readers in addition to providing information services through its reference department. The library serves chiefly those readers who are more educated, according to most reading studies.[1] Therefore, we expect a higher rate of public library use among the more educated segment of the population. Since the library provides one of the few public, centrally located, current information centers in the community, we hypothesize that those who use these services are both community and social participators, and those who would need current awareness information, such as businessmen and professionals, local political officers, and members of social and political organizations within the community. An added factor to consider when describing users is the amount of leisure time. Because instructional or recreational reading beyond magazines or newspapers received in the home requires more leisure time, we would expect those with more leisure time to make greater use of public library facilities.

Since library users know the library best, they can provide the most constructive criticism of its services and facilities. In turn, it would be expected that frequent users will recognize areas of greatest problems and least efficient service because they are most likely to put greater demands upon the services and facilities of the library. We would expect infrequent users to be less critical.

Today there are several segments of our population who are basically dissatisfied with educational facilities and civic services such as schools, parks, and recreational centers. The young, the educated, and most of the Negro population have expressed dissatisfaction with public facilities. We would expect these groups to express the greatest dissatisfaction with library services and facilities.

No national survey of library users has been conducted since the 1950's.[2] However, several regional or community surveys have been carried out within the past four years. William Monat studied library cardholders in five Pennsylvania cities; Mary Lee Bundy surveyed Baltimore-Washington metropolitan library patrons, and Edwin Parker was concerned with patterns of adult information seeking including library use among adults in two communities in California.[3] These studies also point out areas of dissatisfaction with library services and facilities. However, they have not isolated the socio-economic characteristics of the dissatisfied users which is of major concern in this chapter.

Public Library Use

In order to determine the frequency of public library use, the respondents were asked how often they use the public library. "Use" was defined to include the use of material or use of the reference service within the library as well as checking out any type of material available for home use. The responses were then grouped into never, seldom, or frequent use categories as shown in Table 1.

Among the total sample, about one-half never use the library. One-quarter of the sample rarely use the library and the remainder, 22 percent, are frequent patrons.

The total percentage of frequent users identified in this Illinois sample (22.8 percent) is much higher than that found in previous studies. Berelson found that 10 percent of the adults in his survey used the library at least once a month.[4] Monat's recent study of card holders indicated that 22 percent of the adults had library cards.[5] This latter figure does not show the relative differences in frequency of use, but this does point out a major difference in methodology. Our data may reveal a greater number of non-card holding users, such as those who use material and information services within the library but do not take material out of the library. The relatively large group of respondents who never use the library (51.1 percent) shows that our sampling method tapped persons who would not normally be included in a sample of card holders or patrons.

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCY OF PUBLIC LIBRARY USE

Question: "How often do you use a public library . . . ?"	
1. Never use the public library	51.1%
2. Seldom use the public library--once every three months or less	26.1
3. Frequently use the public library--at least once a month or more	22.8
Total	100.0%
N =	(1998)

Table 2 shows that among women a greater percentage are users than among men. Slightly more than one-quarter of the women said that they seldom use the library and about the same proportion made frequent use of the library. Approximately the same proportion of men as women are seldom users, whereas less than one-fifth of the men and one-quarter of the women use the library frequently. Thus, a greater proportion of women are frequent users of the public library than men.

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCY OF PUBLIC LIBRARY USE BY SEX OF RESPONDENTS

		Men	Women
Never		55.8%	47.5%
Seldom		25.5	26.5
Frequent		18.7	26.0
	Total	100.0%	100.0%
	N =	(873)	(1125)
$P > .999$			

Other studies have also found that women tend to be greater users of the public library than men. The Monat and Bundy studies, based on cardholders and patrons, both found that more women were registered than men.[6] The study done by Edwin Parker on patterns of information seeking also revealed that women were more likely than men to have used the library within the past year.[7] Berelson found that among the real users, women accounted for a greater percentage.[8]

There are many explanations for this pattern of library use among women.[9] We would expect most women to have more daytime leisure time than men, giving them more opportunity to use the public library. Women can conveniently visit the library as a part of their regular shopping duties. Also, women are more likely than men to take their children to the library, thus facilitating their own use. Convenience and more free time may explain the more frequent use of the public library by women.

Table 3 reveals a strong inverse relationship between age and frequency of use--as age increases, use decreases.

TABLE 3

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCY OF PUBLIC LIBRARY USE BY AGE OF RESPONDENTS

	29 and Under	30-49 Years	50 and Over
Never	36.4%	42.3%	66.6%
Seldom	35.2	26.9	20.8
Frequent	28.4	30.8	12.6
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(420)	(753)	(824)
$P > .999$			

Among the oldest respondents only about one-third use the library at all as compared to nearly two-thirds of the young and slightly over half of the middle-aged groups. The data reveal that frequent use declines greatly after the age of 50. Approximately 30 percent of the younger and middle-aged groups use the library frequently, whereas only 13 percent of the oldest respondents are frequent users.

Our findings do not differ greatly from previous studies which have shown that school children and young adults are the major users of libraries.[10] These studies, however, reported a greater decline in use after the age of 30 than our study reveals.

Among adult patrons in Illinois use lingers through middle age, with only a slight reduction in use between the ages of 30 and 50. The importance of continuing education and the enjoyment of reading now appear to concern a greater proportion of the population. Berelson suggested that the differences in age among users may be the result of differences in educational background.[11] He predicted an increased proportion of library use among older members of the population as the educational level rises. Since more and more emphasis has been placed on education since the 1940's, we would expect a higher level of education among our two younger age groups. They, more than the oldest group, would be inclined to continue using the library as a source of material as a result of their education. The Ennis study revealed a pattern similar among adult book readers. He showed that book reading decreases sharply after the age of 50.[12] Since adults use the library primarily as a source of books, this reading pattern helps explain the pattern of usage revealed in our survey.

People over 50 may visit the library less frequently as travel becomes more difficult and failing eyesight restrains their reading activities. It also may be that the library fails to provide the kind of reading material desired by older people.

As seen in Table 4, frequent use is more common among those with a college education than among those with a lower level of education. The respondent's education is directly proportional to the frequency of public library use. Persons with college education make frequent use of the library twice as much as those with high school educations, and four times as much as those who dropped out of school early.

A low level of education distinguishes the non-users. Almost four-fifths of those with a low level of education never use the library, whereas one-half of those with some high school education and only one-fifth of those with some college education never use the library. Education appears to be one of the most significant determinants of use.

This finding corresponds to other studies which found a high correlation between education and library use.[13] Bundy found that a majority of the out-of-school library patrons had a college education, while slightly less than 10 percent had

TABLE 4

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCY OF LIBRARY USE BY EDUCATION OF RESPONDENTS

		0-8 Years	9-12 Years	13-17+ Years
Never		78.3%	49.7%	21.6%
Seldom		13.4	29.4	33.7
Frequent		8.3	20.9	44.7
	Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	N =	(536)	(1020)	(445)
P > .999				

dropped out of school early.[14] Monat's study of five Pennsylvania communities found 53 percent of the respondents (cardholders) were educated beyond high school and 19 percent had one or more college degrees.[15]

There are several reasons why library patronage increases with educational attainment. First, persons with high school and college degrees have acquired more reading skill than those with less education. Facility in reading and resultant enjoyment is a precondition for developing patterns of leisure and work-related reading.

Secondly, educated persons, who tend to be drawn from the younger portion of the population, have had more contact with school and college libraries. Through their experience, they have established regular patterns of usage and gained familiarity with the wide spectrum of library services available.

Finally, persons with increased education possess certain social values which affect their reading behavior.[16] Their concern with occupational achievement and upward social mobility motivates them to do much reading and use the library.

A study of the effects of income reveals a direct relationship between income and frequency of use (Table 5). Among those respondents with incomes over $10,000, approximately two-thirds use the library in contrast to one-half of the middle income respondents and only one-third of the low income people. Among the middle-income respondents, 8 percent more use the library frequently than is the case in the low

TABLE 5

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCY OF PUBLIC LIBRARY USE BY INCOME OF RESPONDENTS

	$2-5,999	$6-9,999	$10,000 and Over
Never	68.7%	48.3%	36.2%
Seldom	17.4	29.8	30.9
Frequent	13.9	21.9	32.9
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(591)	(644)	(659)
$P > .999$			

income group. Twenty percent more of the high income group are frequent library patrons than the lower income respondents.

Most studies of library use have also found a high correlation between income and frequency of use.[17] However, we should note the findings in Part II, which indicate a threshhold, where members of very high income groups no longer use the library to the point that some upper class communities do not even have a public library.[18]

Since education and income are positively correlated, we expect that some of the same income effect is actually due to education. However, income, independent of education, may affect patterns of library use. We would expect that materials of interest to the user would vary in relation to his economic status. Upward mobility through job advancement is important to members of the middle income group. By using the self-education materials available in the library, they can gain social skills which help them at work. However, among lower income, laboring groups, economic advancement by improvement of mechanical skills can be provided best in technical schools or community programs; much less can be learned from books. Thus, the collection in most public libraries may not provide material appealing and helpful to all income groups.

As predicted, the greatest percentage of non- or rare-voters do not use the public library facilities (Table 6). Three out of five persons who never or infrequently vote never use the library, whereas, of those who vote, both often and always, approximately one-half do not use the public library.

TABLE 6

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCY OF PUBLIC LIBRARY USE BY VOTING FREQUENCY OF RESPONDENTS

		Never, Sometimes Vote	Often Vote	Always Vote
Never		59.4%	46.1%	50.3%
Seldom		24.8	30.1	25.2
Frequent		15.8	23.8	24.5
	Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	N =	(1067)	(390)	(423)
P> .999				

Since the data revealed no real difference between the two groups of voters (often and always), they are treated here as a single group. Looking at frequent use of the public library, we find that 25 percent of the voters as compared to only 16 percent of the non-voters use the library frequently. Approximately this same proportion exists among rare users, establishing a positive correlation between using the library and voting in elections.

Past studies have not dealt specifically with use of public institutions and frequency of voting. Berelson found that library users were slightly more active voters but the differences were not highly significant.[19]

To explain the correlation between non-use of public library facilities and non-voting, it is helpful to know the characteristics of non-voters. Campbell's study of voters in the 1952 Presidential election showed that non-voters were predominantly female, young (21-34 years), Negro, rural, and possessed a low level of education and income.[20] We have already found that low income and education are related to non-use. Because the other characteristics are unrelated to non-use we presume that the education and income variables affect both behavior patterns of non-use and non-voting.

Public library use can also be viewed in relation to political participation which ultimately leads to voting. Monat found that persons who are active in political and social organizations, and who are politically aware, are frequent library patrons.[21] Other studies of participation in community political and social activities show that highly involved persons are generally characterized by the same attributes as the users of the public library.[22]

Table 7 reveals that a greater proportion of Republicans and Independents use the library than do Democrats. Use of the public library by Republicans and Independents varies only slightly. One-quarter of both the Republicans and Independents as compared to one-fifth of the Democrats are frequent library visitors. Approximately the same proportions exist among those who seldom use the library.

TABLE 7

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCY OF PUBLIC LIBRARY USE BY POLITICAL AFFILIATION OF RESPONDENTS

	Democrat	Republican	Independent
Never	56.1%	47.2%	47.2%
Seldom	23.3	28.3	28.3
Frequent	20.6	24.5	24.5
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(781)	(602)	(530)
P > .99			

Few studies have taken into consideration political affiliation as a determinant of public library use. Monat, however, found little difference among strong and weak Democrats and weak Republicans. He did find that strong Republicans were greater library users, due to their socioeconomic characteristics.[23]

Note should be made that the group of Independents in this Illinois sample in 1968 probably included members of the American Independent party as well as those who would normally refer to themselves as Independents. Due to the unusual circumstances of this election year we are unable to deal with this political affiliation as an explanatory factor.

The effects of race on public library use were also examined but no significant difference was found between the proportions of Negro and white users and non-users.

Dissatisfaction with Public Library Service and Facilities

The purpose of this section is to describe some specific sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with library services among users and then to examine the social and demographic characteristics of those who are dissatisfied. The questionnaire was designed to discover areas of dissatisfaction only among users. If the interviewee responded that he used the public library, he was then asked his level of satisfaction with specific aspects. Table 8 indicates the responses to this question.

TABLE 8

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION WITH PUBLIC LIBRARY SERVICES AND FACILITIES

	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Total
Buildings	84%	16%	100% (929)
Hours open	88	12	100 (920)
Service	95	5	100 (927)
Non-fiction books	83	17	100 (800)
Fiction books	86	14	100 (764)
Reference books	82	18	100 (847)
Parking	57	43	100 (926)
Films, records	82	18	100 (362)
Branch libraries	78	22	100 (447)

In general, the public is satisfied with the service received. This trend corresponds to the findings of other usage studies.[24] Of particular note, however, is the high degree of dissatisfaction with parking facilities and branch libraries. The relationship of parking inadequacy to library use is a relatively unexplored problem which has only lately been studied.[25]

In addition to expressing dissatisfaction with parking, a number of users, amounting to 20 percent of the total, voiced dissatisfaction with branch libraries. Branch library service was defined in its broadest sense to include adequacy of facilities, building, service, and the availability and scope of materials.

Tables 9 and 10 reveal that more men than women are dissatisfied with parking facilities and branch libraries. Almost one-half of the men as compared to less than 40 percent of the women expressed dissatisfaction with library parking facilities.

TABLE 9

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE TOWARD PARKING FACILITIES BY SEX OF RESPONDENTS

		Men	Women
Dissatisfied		48.4%	39.4%
Satisfied		51.6	60.6
	Total	100.0%	100.0%
	N =	(335)	(491)
P > .99			

In regard to dissatisfaction with branch libraries, Table 10 shows that more than one-quarter of the men as compared to only 18 percent of the women responded negatively.

TABLE 10

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE TOWARD BRANCH LIBRARIES BY SEX OF RESPONDENTS

		Men	Women
Dissatisfied		26.5%	18.4%
Satisfied		73.5	81.6
	Total	100.0%	100.0%
	N =	(170)	(270)
P > .95			

Before considering explanations, we should recall the fact that men use the public library less than women because of their lack of leisure time and the inconvenience of library hours. Parking inadequacy as well as limited branch library service and facilities clearly increase the physical inconvenience of using the library.

When the effect of age on dissatisfaction with parking is examined, one finds that as the respondent's age increases his dissatisfaction decreases (Table 11). Approximately half of those under 30 years of age were dissatisfied with parking as compared to only one-third over 50 years of age. Also, middle-aged persons were significantly more dissatisfied with parking facilities than were the oldest respondents.

TABLE 11

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE TOWARD PARKING FACILITIES BY AGE OF RESPONDENTS

		29 and Under	30-49 Years	50 and Over
Dissatisfied		49.1%	43.6%	36.0%
Satisfied		50.9	56.4	64.0
	Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	N =	(220)	(376)	(230)
$P > .98$				

Dissatisfaction with branch libraries among various age groups indicates a slightly different pattern although the same linear relationship exists. Table 12 shows a highly significant difference in dissatisfaction between the young respondents and the middle-aged and old age groups. The percentage of young persons who are dissatisfied is nearly twice that of the middle-aged group and three times that of the older respondents.

Since young people use the library more often than do older people, and are the most dissatisfied, there appears to be a correlation between a high degree of library experience and a high degree of dissatisfaction.

TABLE 12

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE TOWARD BRANCH LIBRARIES BY AGE OF RESPONDENTS

	29 and Under	30-49 Years	50 and Over
Dissatisfied	34.4%	18.3%	12.6%
Satisfied	65.6	81.7	87.4
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(125)	(218)	(103)

$P > .99$

Looking at dissatisfaction with branch libraries among the younger respondents, for instance, it would appear that they have higher expectations and higher standards due to their greater education. Since they put greater demands on branch library collections and services, they are more often frustrated by the inadequacy of services or materials at the local level.

Table 13 indicates the dissatisfaction with branches by race.[26] We see that fully twice as many Negroes as whites voiced dissatisfaction; 36 percent of the Negroes as compared to only 18 percent of the whites were dissatisfied with their branch libraries.

TABLE 13

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE TOWARD BRANCH LIBRARIES BY RACE OF RESPONDENTS

	Negro	White
Dissatisfied	36.4%	17.9%
Satisfied	64.6	82.1
Total	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(82)	(357)

$P > .999$

The high degree of dissatisfaction with public libraries expressed by Negroes is part of their general criticism of public services. In the recent supplementary studies to the Commission on Civil Disorders, Angus Campbell found that Negroes were more dissatisfied than whites with parks and recreation facilities, police protection and garbage collection.[27] Herbert Gans suggests that Negroes are disgruntled and avoid the public library because it is a middle class institution with a formal atmosphere and a supply of materials which fails to meet their abilities or needs.[28] However, as we shall see in Chapter IV, Negroes, while voicing dissatisfaction, constructively criticize the library, for they are among those most likely to vote for tax increases for better buildings and services.

Education has a powerful effect on the level of dissatisfaction with branch library services and facilities (Table 14).

TABLE 14

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE TOWARD BRANCH LIBRARIES BY EDUCATION OF RESPONDENTS

	1-8 Years	9-12 Years	13-17+ Years
Dissatisfied	5.9%	16.9%	31.9%
Satisfied	94.1	83.1	68.1
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(34)	(253)	(160)
P > .999			

Twice as many persons with college as with high school education are unhappy with their local libraries. Fully five times as many highly educated respondents as grade school educated respondents voiced criticism of branch libraries.

It is reasonable to assume that as one's education increases so does his level of expectations as to the library services and materials he wants. Because of past experience with college and university libraries, college-educated persons are likely to put greater demands upon the librarian and the library material. Branch libraries, generally, are not able to meet the high levels of expectation of their more educated users.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was first to define the characteristics of public library users and non-users and then to determine which users are most unhappy with the library services they receive. The survey reveals some clear patterns of user characteristics.

Frequent users tend to have the following modal characteristics: they are female, young or middle-aged (18-49), Republican, college-educated, have a high income ($10,000 or more) and usually vote in elections. A similar, but less inclusive pattern characterizes persons who use the library but do so rarely. Approximately the same proportion of men and women are rare users. They tend to be younger than frequent users and to have a medium to high level of education and income.

The data reveal a clear profile of the non-user. He is male, 50 years and over, Democratic, grade school-educated, has a low income ($2-5,999), and rarely votes in elections.

A review of the user studies conducted during the last 20 years shows some significant changes in the character of the user population. This survey finds a much higher proportion (49 percent) of library users than did older studies. This may be due to a different sampling technique since most studies have been based on biased populations which underestimate the proportion of infrequent library patrons.

The most significant difference between this study and previous studies concerns the age of users. The study indicates only a slight decline in use after the age of 30 with the major drop in library use occurring after the age of 50. This reflects the increasing educational attainment of the total population which exerts a powerful effect on lasting patterns of reading and library use.

In general, the public library still serves a middle and upper class audience. Library use is contingent upon several qualities and behavior patterns which characterize the middle and upper classes. The library is used for seeking knowledge and recreational reading; both are contingent upon the ability to read and enough leisure time to locate the material and read it. Library use is also dependent upon knowing what resources and services to expect of the library. Educational experience provides such knowledge. Finally, continued library use depends upon user satisfaction with materials. This satisfaction is most often met in the middle class communities and least often in lower class areas with poorly-equipped libraries and inappropriate materials.

As has been noted, previous studies have described areas of user dissatisfaction but not the characteristics of those dissatisfied. The data from this survey reveal that library users are generally satisfied; however, we did find a rather large proportion of users who are very critical of the parking facilities. This represents a new and specialized problem area, not considered at the time of the Public Library Inquiry.

The data also help delineate the characteristics of users who are generally dissatisfied with branch libraries. Negroes, men and young people are generally more dissatisfied than whites. Satisfaction is primarily based on meeting the needs and interests of the patrons. However, branch libraries are failing to meet the level of expectations of a significant portion of their most frequent patrons.

References to Chapter II

[1] Philip M. Ennis, Adult Book Reading in the U.S. (Chicago, National Opinion Research Council, 1965), p. 48-49.

[2] See Bernard Berelson, The Library's Public (New York, Columbia University Press, 1949), and Angus Campbell and Charles A. Metzner, Public Use of the Library and Other Sources of Information (Ann Arbor, Institute of Social Research, University of Michigan, 1953).

[3] See Mary Lee Bundy, "Metropolitan Public Library Use." Wilson Library Bulletin, 41 (May, 1967), 950-961; William R. Monat, The Public Library and Its Community, A Study of the Impact of Library Services in Five Pennsylvania Cities (University Park, Pa., Institute of Public Administration, Pennsylvania State University, 1967); and Edwin B. Parker and William J. Paisley, Patterns of Adult Information Seeking (Stanford, California, Stanford University, 1966).

[4] Berelson, The Library's Public, p. 10.

[5] Monat, The Public Library and Its Community, p. 70.

[6] Bundy, "Metropolitan Public Library Use," p. 953; Monat, The Public Library and Its Community, p. 70.

[7] Parker, *Patterns of Information Seeking*, p. III/45.

[8] Berelson, *The Library's Public*, p. 30.

[9] *Ibid*.

[10] Berelson, *The Library's Public*, p. 19 and p. 23; Monat, *The Public Library and Its Community*, p. 71; Campbell and Metzner, *Public Use of the Library and Other Information Sources*, p. 22. Note should be made that our sample does not include people under 18 years of age, which explains why the percentage of frequent users among the young group does not far outnumber the percentage of frequent users in the middle aged group.

[11] Berelson, *The Library's Public*, p. 23-24.

[12] Ennis, *Adult Book Reading in the U.S.*, p. 49-50.

[13] See Parker, *Patterns of Information Seeking*, p. III/45.

[14] Bundy, "Metropolitan Public Library Use," p. 953.

[15] Monat, *The Public Library and Its Community*, p. 73.

[16] Ennis, *Adult Book Reading in the U.S.*, p. 48-49.

[17] Berelson, The Library's Public, p. 34; Campbell and Metzner, *Public Use of the Library and Other Information Sources*, p. 30-31; and Monat, *The Public Library and Its Community*, p. 79.

[18] See page 106, Part II.

[19] Berelson, *The Library's Public*, p. 48-49.

[20] Angus Campbell, Gerald Gurin, and Warren E. Miller, *The Voter Decides* (Evanston, Illinois, Row, Peterson and Co., 1954), p. 70-73.

[21] Monat, *The Public Library and Its Community*, p. 132.

[22] See John M. Foskett. "Social Structure and Social Participation," American Sociological Review, 20 (August, 1955), 431-38; R. Hagedorn and S. Labovitz, "Participation in Community Associations by Occupations," American Sociological Review, 33 (April, 1968), 272-83; and William Erbe, "Social Involvement and Political Activity," American Sociological Review, 29 (April, 1964), 198-215.

[23] Monat, The Public Library and Its Community, p. 131.

[24] Berelson, The Library's Public, p. 82; and Campbell and Metzner, Public Use of the Library and Other Sources of Information, p. 44-45; Monat, The Public Library and Its Community, p. 107-8.

[25] Bundy, "Metropolitan Public Library Use," p. 957; Monat, The Public Library and Its Community, p. 107-8.

[26] Our data revealed no significant differences among Negroes and whites as to their dissatisfaction with parking facilities.

[27] Angus Campbell and Howard Schuman, "Racial Attitudes in Fifteen American Cities," (Ann Arbor, Survey Research Center, Institute of Michigan, June, 1968), in Supplemental Studies for the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (Washington, D.C., G.P.O., 1968), p. 39.

[28] Herbert J. Gans, "The Access Survey: from the Social Scientist's Viewpoint," Wilson Library Bulletin, 38 (December, 1963), 341. See also James Baldwin, Go Tell It On The Mountain (New York, New American Library, 1953), p. 33-4.

CHAPTER III

PUBLIC OPINION ON FINANCING LIBRARIES

by

Gabrielle D'Elia

Public libraries in Illinois receive their major financial support from local tax funds. Although many libraries were started privately, most have eventually sought public tax support under laws first established by the Illinois Library Act of 1872. At present there are over 400 public libraries in Illinois, each receiving its major support from local tax funds. Illinois law stipulates that the maximum tax rate for libraries is .12 without referendum but that this rate can rise to .20 by referendum. The tax money generally comes from a levy based on assessed valuation of real estate. In addition, public libraries receive other funds, though not major support, from private donations, from fees, and from state or federal sources. In 1956, the federal government enacted the Library Services Act, and in 1964, the Library Services and Construction Act. These measures provide some federal grants to local libraries through the Illinois State Library for the development of new and improved services and for construction programs. The state government, through the 1965 Library Development Act, has begun to play a greater role in financing libraries by developing library systems throughout the state. Thus there is a trend toward having the federal and state governments assume a larger role in the financial support of public libraries.

Analyzing the attitudes of Illinois citizens on financing libraries may be important for showing how much support exists for the present system and which groups would prefer a change. This chapter has a two-fold purpose: first, to analyze the opinions of respondents on what method they prefer as the major source of financial support for public libraries, and second, to gauge their attitudes toward tax increases for improvements in library services and buildings. Thus the chapter will consist of two main divisions: Methods of Finance and Support of Tax Increases.

Methods of Finance

In answer to the question, "In your opinion, what should be the major source of financial support for public libraries?" respondents were given ten different choices, including one for no opinion (see Appendix A). For purposes of analysis, the alternatives were grouped into three categories: local support, centralized support, and private support. Local financing was the term applied to such respondent preferences as financing by a city, village, or township government; county government; or school district. Centralized financing was the heading designed to include preferences for the state or federal government as the major source of financial support for libraries. Finally, private financing meant reliance on such varied sources as library fund drives, United Fund or Community Chest campaigns, membership fees from users, and rental fees for special books or records.

A position advocating local, centralized, or private finance as the major source of support for public libraries entails some assumptions about the role of the library in society, about the desired base of participation in society, and about satisfaction with traditional methods.

Local finance.--A position favoring local financing of public libraries could imply two different things: one, that the respondent feels that it is important that libraries be public and open to all residents,[1] and two, that the respondent feels that support should be derived from, and controlled by, the local level of government.[2] Local financing has been the traditional means of supporting local public services.

Noting some common criticisms of local tax support may give indications as to why some respondents selected another method of finance than the traditional one. The major problem with local finance based on a property tax has been the inability of municipalities to collect adequate resources to respond to a vast number of social changes. These changes include an increasing number of demands on the local government to solve many social problems, all at increasingly higher cost;[3] the eroded tax base of cities, making it impossible for cities to obtain adequate resources to care for the many problems;[4] the development of suburban communities as autonomous, fragmented units each trying to carry on a complex of municipal functions;[5] and the increasing feeling on the part of certain elements in society that they bear an unfair burden in terms of the property tax.[6]

Centralized finance.--A position favoring centralized finance as the major source of support for public libraries implies a willingness to go beyond local tax sources and involve two different levels of government--state and federal.

One effect of such a position would be changes in the method of securing resources. The state of Illinois gets most of its funds from a property tax and a sales tax. Criticisms of the property tax have already been noted. One criticism of the sales tax is that it hits hardest those people with the lowest incomes. The federal government, on the other hand, gets major resources from a graduated income tax which, in principle, requires people to pay in proportion to their ability.

Common features of a position favoring centralized finance of libraries would include the view that the centralized governments have greater resources and power to handle problems that local governments are either unable or unwilling to handle.[7] Further, many problems spill across municipal boundaries and a centralized approach may be the best means of handling them.

Private finance.--Since a preference for private financing of libraries implies the use of a variety of alternative sources of support, such as charity donations or club membership dues, some attempt must be made to note the different implications of a club or charity approach.

A position favoring a charity approach was indicated by respondents who expressed preferences for library fund drives or Community Chest campaigns for library support. A position favoring club finance included such alternatives as membership fees from users or rental fees for special books or records. Thus, a major difference between the two categories is that under a charity approach the money to support the library comes from private sources, but the library is still open to all citizens. On the other hand, a public library financed by a club approach not only gets money from private sources, but is actually not open to the whole public. If use must be paid for, and there are citizens who can not or will not pay for the privilege, the public library becomes private.

The position of those favoring private support is especially interesting for analysis here because it is very different from the traditional tax support method of libraries and in some aspects antithetical to the free public library tradition. It opposes both the standard tradition of public support and the trend toward increased state and federal government financing.

When the overall results were tabulated, the vast majority of respondents (57.5 percent), as expected, favored local financing (Table 15). About one-fifth (21.8 percent) favored centralized finance, which reflects the trend toward increased support for libraries from state and federal sources. About the same portion (20.7 percent) preferred some form of private

TABLE 15

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PREFERRED METHOD OF FINANCE

Q. "In your opinion, what should be the major source of financial support for public libraries?"	
Local finance	57.5%
Centralized finance	21.8
Private finance	20.7
Total	100.0%
N =	(1861)

financing as the major source of support for public libraries. Thus, it appears that while most respondents are satisfied with the traditional method of financing libraries, there is a sizeable amount of opinion which would look with favor on other methods.

More informative results were obtained when responses were controlled by a number of socioeconomic variables, such as race, sex, age, level of education, voting rate, political affiliation, and level of income.

The race of respondents has a strong effect on preferences about method of library finance (Table 16). While 60 percent

TABLE 16

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PREFERRED METHOD OF FINANCE BY RACE OF RESPONDENT

	Negro	White
Local	40.8%	59.7%
Centralized	35.4	19.9
Private	23.8	20.4
Total	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(223)	(1616)
$P > .999$		

of the white respondents selected local support as their preferred major source of finance, only 41 percent of the Negroes did so. Fifteen percent more Negroes than whites chose centralized finance.

These results pose some interesting questions. Why are significantly more Negroes than whites dissatisfied with the existing system of library support? As noted in Chapter II, Negroes generally are more dissatisfied with the handling of social and civic problems at the municipal level. Supplemental studies done for the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders found Negroes far more dissatisfied than whites with neighborhood schools, parks and playgrounds, teenage recreation centers, police protection, and garbage collection.[8] Thus, Negroes may have a generalized feeling that local libraries are also inadequate. In reality, libraries in ghetto areas are usually in poor condition, due to a number of factors, such as the eroded tax base of cities noted earlier.

A further source of dissatisfaction with libraries arises from the fact that many Negroes have an inadequate knowledge of the library's function. A number of studies have indicated that Negroes are not especially aware of the library's role:

> Most disadvantaged persons interviewed in the study seemed to know that the library was a depository of information and educational material. What they did not seem to realize was its accessibility to them, the fact that it was free, and that they could borrow from it to use outside the library.[9]

Another interesting question is why such a large portion of the Negro respondents selected centralized finance as the major source of support for public libraries. This question might be approached from two sides, one concerning finance and the other concerning the role of the library and of education. In terms of finance it can be argued that Negroes who have lower incomes would not have as large a tax burden if libraries were supported by federal funds as they would for libraries supported by local taxes. Finally, many Negroes look to the federal government for local improvements, for it has been in the vanguard in providing civil rights and economic opportunities for Negroes. For instance, Negroes surveyed by the Commission on Civil Disorders felt generally, and much more strongly than whites, that the anti-poverty program was doing a good, or at least a fair, job.[10]

Controlling for respondents' level of education reveals a number of interesting trends (Table 17). Level of education seems to be a key variable in preferences for the various methods of finance.

TABLE 17

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PREFERRED METHOD OF FINANCE BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF RESPONDENTS

	0-8 Years	9-12 Years	13-17+ Years
Local	49.5%	56.7%	67.8%
Centralized	21.9	21.4	22.8
Private	28.6	21.9	9.4
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(471)	(957)	(435)
$P > .999$			

The greatest percentage of any group favoring local finance appears among those with a college education (67.8 percent). On the other hand, the group with a grade school education (0-8 years) was most likely to dislike the local finance approach (49.5 percent).[11] This same difference is found in support of private finance. Those with a grade school education were more likely to support private finance (28.6 percent), while those with a college education were least likely (9.4 percent).

Why is education such an important factor? As noted earlier, education is highly valued in American society as the key to higher occupations and incomes. Thus, insofar as the library is related to the education process, those who place the greatest value on education will place the greatest emphasis on the library.

Those with a college education, as we have seen, are more likely than those with less education to use the library. Because of the value they place on the library, they are interested in seeing it supported by some public means. On the other hand, those with lower levels of education are less likely to see the need for the library and are thus unwilling to pay for its support. As we will see later, those who never use the library, who have the lowest level of income, and the lowest level of education, are most in favor of private financing of libraries.

Controlling for respondents' political affiliations produced some fairly predictable results (Table 18). The majority of each group, Democrat, Republican, and Independent, preferred

TABLE 18

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PREFERRED METHOD OF FINANCE BY POLITICAL AFFILIATION OF RESPONDENTS

	Democrat	Republican	Independent
Local	51.5%	66.8%	55.8%
Centralized	25.3	14.5	23.8
Private	23.2	18.7	20.4
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(730)	(557)	(500)

$P > .999$

local financing as the major source of support for public libraries. Two-thirds of the Republicans chose local financing, in comparison to only half of the Democrats. This stand is consistent with a traditional Republican preference for local authority. In contrast, in line with a general trend of Democratic policy shifting more and more authority to a centralized position, significantly more of the Democrats preferred centralized funding for libraries.

The responses of the Independent group fell in between those of the Democrats and Republicans, but as we have already indicated in Chapter II, the atypical composition of the Independent group during the 1968 election year makes it very difficult to draw any meaningful conclusion from this fact.

Family income appears to influence preferences for methods of library finance (Table 19). Again, as with educational level, two trends emerge. Fifteen percent more people with a higher level of income ($10,000 a year or more) favored local financing than did people with a low level of income ($5,999 a year or less). Over a quarter of the low income group selected private financing in contrast to only 15 percent of the high income category. This difference is understandable, for those with low incomes are most opposed to using funds for facilities for which they see less need and have less use.

The rate of library use is an important factor affecting the method of finance preferred (Table 20). These results

TABLE 19

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PREFERRED METHOD OF FINANCE BY ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME OF RESPONDENTS

	$2-5,999	$6-9,999	$10,000 and Over
Local	50.4%	56.9%	65.5%
Centralized	22.0	24.4	19.2
Private	27.6	18.7	15.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(522)	(610)	(641)
$P > .999$			

clearly support the trends indicated by other variables. Those who use the library are much more in favor of local finance than those who never do. As we have seen, respondents with higher education and income are much more likely to use the library than those with lower levels of education. Further, we have seen that those with higher levels of education and income are more likely to select local support.

TABLE 20

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PREFERRED METHOD OF FINANCE BY LIBRARY USE OF RESPONDENTS

	Never	Seldom	Frequently
Local	53.5%	62.5%	61.0%
Centralized	20.3	21.0	25.9
Private	26.2	16.5	13.1
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(909)	(491)	(436)
$P > .999$			

On the other hand, people who never use the library are much more likely to choose private finance than those who use it. This situation is expectable since non-users place little value on the library and do not want to have to pay for its support. Library users want it financed on a public basis, so it can serve an important role in the community. Whether the respondents used the library seldom or frequently made no difference in affecting their choice of financing method.

In general, people with more education and income are more likely than those with less education and income to use the library, and those with higher levels of education and income and library users are most in favor of local financing.

The majority of respondents say they are satisfied with the present method of financing libraries. However a significant minority favors centralized funding and another portion prefers private support. Certain socioeconomic variables studied are more important than others for highlighting those results. For example, significant trends emerge when respondent opinions are separated according to level of education and income. Those with higher levels of education and income prefer local financing but oppose private funding. The same results occur when respondents' frequency of library use is taken into consideration. Those who frequently or seldom use the library are much more favorable toward local finance and much less favorable to private funding than those who never use the library. Library users generally have a higher level of education and income than non-users. Thus, in general, the preferred method of finance is related to the respondents' perceived value of the library.

Specific socioeconomic variables are important in distinguishing preference for certain finance alternatives. For example, race of respondents is an important variable in polarizing opinion toward centralized finance, and the political inclination is associated with opposition to centralized finance and support of local finance.

Some variables do not discriminate among responses. These include sex, political affiliation (except for Republican), age of respondent, and frequency of voting rate.

Support of Tax Increases

Since local financing is preferred by the majority of respondents as the major source of support for public libraries, and since local finance constitutes a tax levy, it is important to locate the segments of the population which will support tax increases for libraries. The survey included one question (Appendix A) which asked respondents if they would vote yes or no on a proposal for raising taxes to pay for more or better library services and for a new or larger library building.

For purposes of analysis, improved service is assumed to include such things as increase in number and kind of volumes available for borrowing; more resource material, including magazines, newspapers, records, and films; and a larger or better trained staff. A new or larger building is assumed to mean development of physical facilities, whether for a main library or branches.

Table 21 shows that most respondents (62 percent) would favor some kind of tax increase for improved library services. It appears that a majority see a positive role for the library in the community, and would be willing to support a tax increase to provide more and better services. On the other hand, half the respondents (55 percent) said they would not support a tax increase for a new or larger building for the library.

TABLE 21

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SUPPORT FOR TAX INCREASES FOR LIBRARY SERVICES AND BUILDINGS

Question: "Would you vote 'yes' or 'no' on a proposal to raise the library tax rate or other taxes if it meant more and better services?"

Yes		62.5%
No		37.5
	Total	100.0%
	N =	(1832)

Question: "Would you vote 'yes' or 'no' on a proposal to raise the library tax rate or other taxes if it means a new or larger building?"

Yes		45.0%
No		55.0
	Total	100.0%
	N =	(1828)

What factors cause this difference in support? It may be that people place a greater importance on the material content of the library than on the actual physical facilities. Also, the amount of money required for improved services is much less than that required for building improvements. New buildings are very expensive, take time to complete and often seem to be outgrown even before they are finished.

A clearer view of where library support exists in the population can be found by controlling for different socio-economic variables. For instance, Table 22 shows that a respondent's race strongly affects his willingness to support a tax increase for library services and buildings. Fully three quarters of the Negroes answered that they would approve a tax increase for better library services in contrast to only 60 percent of the whites. Almost 30 percent more Negroes than whites favored a tax increase for building improvements. In fact, the percentage of Negroes approving a tax increase for building improvements was even larger than the percentage of whites favoring an increase for improved services. However, while the majority of whites indicated a favorable response to a proposal to increase taxes for better library services, the majority was opposed to any increase for a new or larger building.

TABLE 22

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THOSE FAVORING TAX INCREASES BY RACE OF RESPONDENT

	Negro	White	Total	
Services	75.6%	60.9%	($P > .999$)	(N = 1807)
Building	68.5	41.8	($P > .999$)	(N = 1803)

This great difference is probably due to the current tax distribution. Whites now carry a heavier tax load, because of their propensity towards property ownership, and are unwilling to support a significant tax increase for building improvements.[12] Negroes, who own far less property than whites, would not be as burdened by a property tax increase. This reasoning is supported by Garrison who found that areas voting most favorably on library tax increases were racially segregated and had the lowest levels of income, of occupational status, and of home ownership.[13] On the other hand, Negroes are very unhappy with public facilities and want wholesale improvement. As shown earlier, many Negroes also preferred a nontraditional method of financing libraries in addition to supporting tax increases for improvement.

The age of the respondent has an important effect on his willingness to support a library tax increase (Table 23). The biggest differences in opinion occur between those under 30 and those over 30 years of age. Thus while 72 percent of the younger adults favor tax increases for improved library services, only 62 percent of the group aged 30-49 and 57 percent of the oldest group are willing to pay more taxes for services.

TABLE 23

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THOSE FAVORING TAX INCREASES BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

	29 and Under	30-49 Years	50 and Over	Total	
Services	72.2%	62.5%	57.0%	(P > .999)	(N = 1827)
Building	56.4	45.7	38.2	(P > .999)	(N = 1823)

Similarly, younger respondents are much more in favor of a tax increase for improvements in library buildings, while older respondents tend to be opposed. Fifty-six percent of the young group favor an increase as compared to 46 percent of the middle aged group and only 38 percent of the oldest respondents.

Thus the younger group is more favorable toward tax increases for services and buildings. This may be due partly to the fact that they carry a smaller tax load, for they are less likely to own their own homes. The middle aged are more likely to be homeowners and to carry the heaviest tax burden. The oldest group includes the largest percentage of people in retirement or living on various forms of limited income, such as Social Security. Smith's study in California found the elderly opposed to bond issues.[14] In addition, research in geriatrics has isolated an aging syndrome which shows that older people become increasingly opposed to change in general.

Like its effect on preferred method of finance, education influences willingness to support tax increases (Table 24). While the majority of respondents in each educational group favor the tax increase proposal for improved services, the support rises from a little over half (55 percent) for the

TABLE 24

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THOSE FAVORING TAX INCREASES BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF RESPONDENT

	0-8 Years	9-12 Years	13-17+ Years	Total	
Services	55.0%	61.1%	73.6%	(P > .999)	(N = 1831)
Building	39.2	45.3	50.7	(P > .999)	(N = 1827)

group with a grade school education to almost three-fourths (74 percent) for the group with a college level education.

In terms of opinion on a tax increase for improvements in library buildings, 51 percent of the college-educated respondents were in favor of the increase, while 45 percent of those with a high school education, and only 39 percent of those with a grade school education, indicated approval for the increase.

We know that respondents with a college education favor local financing of libraries, which indicates their preference for the public nature of the library, and thus they are more willing to support tax increases for the library. People with the lowest levels of education are least likely to use the library, most favorable toward private financing, and thus least willing to support tax increases for use by the library.

The trend for those with higher levels of education to be more in favor of supporting library tax increases than those with lower education is a finding confirmed in studies by Garrison and Berelson.[15]

Controlling for political affiliation, one finds some fairly predictable results for Democratic and Republican respondents (Table 25). It is interesting to remember that a

TABLE 25

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THOSE FAVORING TAX INCREASES BY POLITICAL AFFILIATION OF RESPONDENT

	Democrat	Republican	Independent	Total	
Services	66.8%	63.4%	55.5%	(P > .999)	(N = 1760)
Building	51.8	41.0	39.3	(P > .999)	(N = 1755)

much larger proportion of Republicans than Democrats favor local financing of libraries, but yet the percentage of Democrats (67 percent) favoring a tax increase for services is slightly higher than that of the Republicans (63 percent). However, this difference in supporting tax increases for library services is small compared to the differences regarding a tax increase for building improvements. While 52 percent of the Democrats would approve a tax increase for buildings, only 41 percent of the Republicans would do so.

The effect of political affiliation on a non-political issue such as library support would not seem to be a key factor except as political affiliation reflects a general political orientation.[16] Thus, one might assume that Republicans, who generally oppose higher taxes, would oppose an increase for libraries more strongly than would Democrats, whose tradition has increasingly involved governmental solution of problems and this has resulted in higher taxes. Since the study was done in Illinois during the summer of 1968, when Democrats were in control of the federal and state government, those who were highly discontent with the tax burden and with governmental handling of problems might have been more likely to be Republicans. Thus one might have expected Republicans to be more opposed to increased taxes.

Frequency with which respondents use the library has a strong effect on their willingness to support tax increases, as seen in Table 26. Seventy percent of those who frequently use the library are favorable as compared to 60 percent of those who never do. This is expectable since those who use the library most frequently value it as an educational tool, and thus are more willing to support it. Monat also found that the more active a user is, the more likely he would be to have favorable attitudes toward the library and to support it through tax increases.[17]

TABLE 26

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THOSE FAVORING TAX INCREASES BY FREQUENCY OF LIBRARY USE

	Never	Seldom	Frequent	Total	
Services	59.9%	60.3%	69.9%	($P > .999$)	(N = 1810)
Building	45.7	40.4	47.6	($P > .999$)	(N = 1806)

We have seen, however, that the majority of respondents, regardless of the socioeconomic variable considered, are opposed to a tax increase for library buildings. Even so, as in the case of education and age, a number of linear trends appear, and one might expect a linear trend to result in terms of frequency of library use. Actually, a curvilinear pattern results. Forty-six percent of those who never use the library, and 48 percent of those who frequently do, indicated they would support a tax increase for building improvements. However, only 40 percent of those who seldom use the library were favorable to a tax increase.

In summary, the opinions of respondents show that the majority would clearly favor a tax increase for improved library services, but would be opposed to an increase for improvement in the physical facilities.

Age and educational level of the respondent are the most important factors in willingness to support tax increases. Older people and those with the lowest levels of education are most opposed to tax increases, while younger people and those with college educations are most in favor of them. Insignificant variables are sex, political affiliation, income, and frequency of voting rate.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In this chapter we have discussed public opinion on two aspects of library finance: major method of finance preferred, and support for tax increase proposals for library services and buildings. A little over half the respondents favor local financing of libraries, the present method. About half the respondents would support a tax increase for improved services, but a majority would not approve an increase for new buildings. Thus, the library can expect to encounter opposition to its programs that call for tax increases and should be prepared to conduct an extensive campaign to win voters.

A number of suggestions would seem to be in order. The results concerning the preferred method of finance indicate groups in the population apparently satisfied with the present tax system, groups generally opposed to the public nature of libraries, and groups who might be in the vanguard of supporting new methods of library finance. A question to be posed is how well did people understand the various options for library finance and the ways in which this finance already operates? For example, how much knowledge do people have about the nature of state and federal government support to libraries? Undoubtedly libraries might benefit from making the public more aware of these methods.

On the other hand, the existence of groups opposed to the public nature of libraries indicates that there are people the library does not serve and this suggests two possible forms of action. One would be making the people comprising the opposition more aware of the services of the library and trying to show how it serves an important need for them and for the community. The other would be introducing new services in which these people might be more actively interested. Since the opposition to the public nature of the library often includes those with low income and education, perhaps a strategy of stressing services important for job achievement or stressing the importance of the library for their children would be key avenues to making the library more relevant. In addition, since it has been found that ghetto dwellers are unaware of many library services, and since most present library services are unsuited to the needs of the ghetto population, it would be important for libraries to increase programs trying to reach deprived groups.

It would also be important for those concerned with libraries to note which groups are only moderately opposed to tax increases. Efforts spent to make them more aware of library services and to institute services they would value, might easily swing them to a position of stronger library support.

It is clear that under the present tax system libraries will continue to meet opposition in carrying out programs requiring increased finance. Unless libraries support a changed financial structure, or unless they broaden their base of public support under the present tax system, they will meet certain obstacles. There are many problems with the present tax structure, and there is increasing opposition to it, but while it remains in existence and while there are so many growing community needs to be met, a question of priorities develops. Libraries inevitably find themselves in competition with other civic concerns. If libraries wish to see their own programs implemented, they must generate a higher degree of support for their services in a broader base of the public.

References to Chapter III

[1] Writers who deal with this subject: C. M. Tiebout and R. J. Willis, "The Public Nature of Libraries" and E. C. Banfield, "Needed: A Public Purpose" in R. W. Conant, ed. The Public Library and the City (Cambridge: M.I.T. Press, 1965).

[2] See K. E. Beasley, "Governmental and Financial Problems of Urban Areas: Their Relationship to Libraries," Library Quarterly, 38 (January, 1968), 21. Beasley notes two reasons why local finance has been the traditional source of support for libraries: the local property tax levy has been the usual source of local income, and the library profession itself has favored the local library tax thinking it provided more financial independence.

[3] See Robert H. Salisbury, "Trends in Urban Politics and Government: The Effect on Library Functions," in R. W. Conant, ed., op. cit.

[4] For a discussion of the effect of the eroded tax base of cities on the library, see Harold S. Hacker, "Financial Problems of the Large Library," Library Quarterly, 38 (January, 1968), 42-43. Also W. F. Hellmuth, "Trends in Urban Fiscal Policies: The Effect on Library Functions" in R. W. Conant, ed., op. cit., p. 157.

[5] Lester L. Stoffel, "The Large City Library from the Viewpoint of the Suburban Library," Library Quarterly, 38 (January, 1968), 92-93.

[6] For example, farmers tend to feel that they carry an unfair burden with the property tax. See Mary Lee Bundy, An Analysis of Voter Reaction to a Proposal to Form a Library District for LaSalle and Bureau Counties, Illinois (Springfield, Illinois State Library, Research Series, No. 1, December, 1960). Also some individuals feel that the property tax in unfair to certain business and industrial development concerns. See K. E. Beasley, op. cit., p. 21.

[7] Thus one might expect Negroes to favor centralized finance since they tend, more than whites, to feel that the local government is ineffective. See E. B. Nyquist, "Poverty, Prejudice and the Public Library," Library Quarterly, 38 (January, 1968), 78-89. Nyquist notes that most public library programs for the disadvantaged were started or supported by the federal government.

[8] Angus Campbell and Howard Schuman, "Racial Attitudes in Fifteen American Cities," Supplemental Studies for the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968), p. 40.

[9] "A Study of Four Library Programs for Disadvantaged Persons" Division of Library Development, The New York State Library, Albany, in ALA Bulletin, July-August, 1968, p. 783. See also "Freedom of Access to Libraries," ALA Bulletin, July-August 1968, pp. 883-887 for a discussion by a number of Negro leaders on the problem of minority use of libraries.

[10] Campbell and Schuman, *op. cit.*, p. 41.

[11] This is except for the opposition of Negroes to the traditional method of financing libraries. It should be noted that a larger portion of the Negro group than of the whites would be expected to have the lowest level of education, but that generally Negroes form a distinct group who might be expected to be more dissatisfied with existing conditions.

[12] Guy G. Garrison, Seattle Voters and Their Public Library (Springfield, Illinois, Illinois State Library, Research Series, No. 2, 1961). Hereafter to be referred to as Garrison, Seattle. Garrison found home ownership to be a key variable as it was related to education. He found opposition to library bond issues in areas with single-family owner-occupied homes that were primarily native-white, working class, p. 72.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 75. We have also seen in Part I of this report that Negro areas gave most support to a bond issue for libraries in Champaign, Illinois.

[14] John A. Smith, An Appraisal of School Bond Campaign Techniques (University of Southern California Education Monographs, No. 15, Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1956), p. 117.

[15] Guy G. Garrison, "Voting on a Library Bond Issue: Two Elections in Akron, Ohio 1961 and 1962," Library Quarterly, 33 (July, 1963), 229-41. See also Bernard Berelson, The Library's Public (New York: Columbia University Press, 1949).

[16] Alvin Boskoff and Harmon Zeigler, Voting Patterns in a Local Election (New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1964).

[17] W. R. Monat, "The Public Library and Its Community," (Pennsylvania State Library, Monograph Series, No. 7, University Park, Pa., Pennsylvania State University, 1967), p. 123.

CHAPTER IV

ATTITUDES TOWARD POLITICAL AND IDEOLOGICAL ISSUES

by

Elaine Albright

> As a tax-supported institution the public library depends in the long run upon how much the voters will take from their pockets to pay for its services.[1]

The public library has traditionally played a somewhat passive role in the community and its governmental processes. It has relied on its services as an educational institution to gain public and financial support. Unfortunately this approach has not always been successful. While many approve of the library, few are willing to demonstrate their approval by generous financial support. In an attempt to solicit greater financial support, the library has begun to extend its services into areas which more directly respond to community interests. One of the ways in which libraries have tried to respond is by providing balanced collections of materials representing the various political ideologies. Since it is mainly through services rendered by the librarian in his role as book selector and information specialist that the library serves the community, questions submitted to the Omnibus Survey included two which dealt with these issues (Appendix A).

This chapter has been divided into two sections, each dealing with responses to questions involving ideological aspects of the library's reading collection. The first section focuses on the adequacy of political material in the library. In the second part, the public's reaction to community review boards as an instrument for curtailing the librarian's autonomy and providing a community voice in the selection of reading materials is presented.

Satisfaction with Political Materials

In order to determine whether the library is achieving its goal of providing a balanced collection of political materials, the respondents were asked whether or not they were satisfied with the amounts of conservative and liberal material available in the public library. The term "conservative" in this study has been defined as including the ideas which maintain or support the status quo and which do not encourage change in the present system of government. "Liberal," refers to a more radical outlook, implying a dissatisfaction with the status quo and suggesting social changes.[2]

Tables 27 and 28 indicate that the majority of the respondents are satisfied with both the conservative and the liberal material available in the library. Fifty-seven percent of the respondents felt there was enough conservative material and 49 percent were satisfied with the amount of liberal material present in the library. Only a small minority of the

TABLE 27

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH CONSERVATIVE MATERIAL

Question: "Do you think that public libraries provide enough materials with a conservative point of view?"	
Yes	57%
No	9
Don't know	34
Total	100%
N =	(2023)

TABLE 28

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH LIBERAL MATERIAL

Question: "Do you think that public libraries provide enough materials with a liberal point of view?"	
Yes	49%
No	12
Don't know	39
Total	100%
N =	(2018)

sample was dissatisfied with the political material. It is significant to note that an unusually large proportion had no opinion concerning the questions. In fact, those responding with a "Don't Know" answer constituted more than a third of those responding.[3]

Table 29 shows that over three-fourths of the respondents are satisfied with both the conservative and liberal materials. About half, however, indicated dissatisfaction with both types of literature. The vast majority of responses in the "Don't Know" category is comprised of the same people in both instances. Ninety-four percent of those who gave no opinion about the conservative literature answered in the same way when questioned about the liberal material available. This high degree of overlap is also indicated by a strong positive correlation (.90).

TABLE 29

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION WITH CONSERVATIVE MATERIALS BY SATISFACTION WITH LIBERAL MATERIALS

	Conservative Material		
	Yes	No	Don't Know
Liberal Material			
Yes	77.0%	38.0%	4.6%
No	11.2	54.7	.7
Don't Know	11.8	7.3	94.7
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(1146)	(192)	(680)

$P > .99$

Several important facts are brought out here. The majority of respondents are satisfied with the political balance of materials in public libraries. Also, the "Don't Know" category remains relatively constant in answering both questions, thus lending greater validity to the positive and negative replies. We can be more certain that the remaining responses do not contain a high percentage of people who really "Don't Know."

The high degree of overlap of agreement on satisfaction with liberal and conservative material reduces the importance of the "Yes" category as an analytical class. Instead the lower amount of overlap in the "No" category (54 percent) reflects the respondents' discrimination between conservative and liberal materials. Thus, we shall concentrate on the distribution of dissatisfaction by background variables.

In an attempt to determine why individuals responded as they did, the effects of a number of background factors were studied. Five variables proved significant to this study--library use, race, education, age, and political affiliation. Insignificant factors included the respondent's sex, income, and voting rate.

As found in Chapter II, frequent users of the library tend to be young, educated, middle and upper class members of the community. It will be shown later in this chapter that these factors are related to dissatisfaction with political materials. However, the question remains whether acquaintance with library material, as indicated through rate of library use, is related to dissatisfaction with these materials.

Users are more dissatisfied with the political content of the library than are non-users (Tables 30 and 31). This is especially pronounced in relation to the liberal material.

TABLE 30

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH CONSERVATIVE MATERIALS BY FREQUENCY OF LIBRARY USE

	Never	Seldom	Frequent
Yes	44.5%	67.6%	73.9%
No	8.8	9.4	11.4
Don't Know	46.7	23.0	14.7
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(1018)	(521)	(456)
$P > .99$			

Twice as many users, as compared to non-users, are dissatisfied with the liberal collection of the public library. Also important is the concentration of "Don't Know" responses given

TABLE 31

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH LIBERAL MATERIALS BY FREQUENCY OF LIBRARY USE

	Never	Seldom	Frequent
Yes	39.6%	54.5%	64.0%
No	8.8	15.0	15.8
Don't Know	51.6	30.4	20.2
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(1017)	(517)	(456)
P> .99			

by the non-users of the library. In relation to both the liberal and conservative materials, respondents who never use the library facilities volunteered "Don't Know" answers two and one-half to three times more frequently than users.

The greater dissatisfaction with liberal material voiced by people who use the public library probably reflects the actual inadequacies of their libraries in furnishing materials. The fact that persons who are acquainted with library materials are more critical than persons with no library experience indicates an important deficiency on the library's part.

Tables 32 and 33 indicate that two and one-half to three times more Negroes than whites are dissatisfied. Approximately

TABLE 32

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH CONSERVATIVE MATERIALS BY RACE OF RESPONDENT

	Negro	White
Yes	43.7%	58.9%
No	23.5	7.4
Don't Know	32.8	33.7
Total	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(247)	(1750)
P> .99		

TABLE 33

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH LIBERAL MATERIALS BY RACE OF RESPONDENT

		Negro	White
Yes		40.0%	50.0%
No		25.3	10.1
Don't Know		34.7	39.9
	Total	100.0%	100.0%
	N =	(245)	(1748)
P> .99			

one-fourth of the Negro respondents said that they are dissatisfied with both the conservative and liberal material in the library. This dissatisfaction was also found in Chapter II concerning Negro discontent with branch libraries.

Despite slight improvements in socioeconomic conditions, the gap between whites and blacks is increasing, creating even more difficulties than in the past. Negroes are much more negative about their share of society's benefits. More than ever before, they feel they have been unfairly treated and they freely express their dislike of white institutions such as the schools, the government, and the library. Demands for Black cultural centers, increased collections in Black history and literature, and advanced educational programs have placed new demands on public libraries, which traditionally serve the white, educated middle class. Libraries, particularly those in Negro neighborhoods, are not adequately equipped to handle the demands for Black literature. In an interview, June Shagaloff, education program director of the NAACP, expressed the opinion that "libraries have not provided adequate coverage of Black history and culture in their collections."[4] As the Black population continues to gain in education, income, and community standing, their demands and expectations will increase along with their dissatisfaction with public institutions that fail to meet these demands.

As education increases, dissatisfaction with the political content of the library also increases (Tables 34 and 35). The proportion of college educated people dissatisfied with the library material is approximately three times that of

TABLE 34

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH CONSERVATIVE MATERIAL BY EDUCATION OF RESPONDENT

	0-8 Years	9-12 Years	13-17+ Years
Yes	47.3%	59.6%	62.7%
No	7.1	9.9	11.4
Don't Know	45.6	30.5	25.9
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(548)	(1032)	(448)

P > .99

those with a grade school education. While the difference in dissatisfaction with conservative material is much smaller in size, the relationship with education is identical. As education increases, the number of "Don't Know" responses decreases

TABLE 35

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH LIBERAL MATERIAL BY EDUCATION OF RESPONDENT

	0-8 Years	9-12 Years	13-17+ Years
Yes	31.6%	53.7%	51.7%
No	6.9	10.7	18.8
Don't Know	61.5	35.6	29.5
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(642)	(1029)	(447)

P > .99

in relation to both liberal and conservative material. Professional and college educated people, having had contact with academic libraries, are more familiar with the wide informational resources possible from libraries. The expectations which they acquire through contact with the more specialized libraries are often transferred to the public library which is inadequately equipped to handle their requests.

The increased use and interest by college educated persons leads to awareness of collection deficiencies and dissatisfaction with the materials available in the public libraries.

The age of a person affects how he will view the political balance of materials in the public library (Tables 36 and 37). Twice as many people under the age of 30 as compared with those over 50 years old are dissatisfied with the liberal materials in the library. The young are also more often dissatisfied with the conservative material than their elders but

TABLE 36

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH CONSERVATIVE MATERIAL BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

	29 and Under	30-49 Years	50 and Over
Yes	62.9%	60.7%	50.3%
No	11.8	10.5	7.3
Don't Know	25.2	28.8	42.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(424)	(764)	(831)
P> .99			

TABLE 37

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH LIBERAL MATERIAL BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

	29 and Under	30-49 Years	50 and Over
Yes	53.0%	53.3%	42.7%
No	18.6	12.7	7.5
Don't Know	28.3	33.9	49.8
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(424)	(763)	(827)
P> .99			

there is not as large a difference here. Those between the ages of 30 and 49 years, though not as often dissatisfied as the young, express unhappiness with the collection more often than those over 50 years.

Three factors contribute to the dissatisfaction of the younger generation with the political balance of the library's collection--greater use of the library, a higher level of education, and a more pronounced interest in liberal ideas and viewpoints. As found in Chapter II, young people are the most frequent users of the library. This fact, along with their requests for liberal materials, often makes them aware of the inability of public libraries to provide the literature that interests them. Being conscious of the deficiencies in the collection of liberal materials, they are dissatisfied with the balance of liberal and conservative materials in the public library.

More Democrats than Republicans are dissatisfied with the balance of political material in the public library (Tables 38 and 39). This dissatisfaction is focused primarily on the liberal content of the library's collection. Fourteen percent of the Democrats feel that the amount of liberal material available is inadequate. However, only 9 percent of the Republicans hold a similar conviction.

TABLE 38

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH CONSERVATIVE MATERIALS BY POLITICAL AFFILIATION OF RESPONDENT

	Democrat	Republican	Independent
Yes	58.9%	54.8%	57.9%
No	11.2	8.1	8.6
Don't Know	29.9	37.1	33.5
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(793)	(607)	(534)
P > .95			

The Democratic party is usually associated with the younger and more liberal elements of our society. They desire changes in the status quo and are active in their support of

TABLE 39

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SATISFACTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH LIBERAL MATERIAL BY POLITICAL AFFILIATION OF RESPONDENT

		Democrat	Republican	Independent
Yes		50.3%	46.1%	51.4%
No		14.1	9.4	11.1
Don't Know		35.5	44.5	37.5
	Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	N =	(791)	(607)	(531)
P> .99				

liberal ideas. Their dissatisfaction with the liberal literature in the public library is an extension of their desire to make this material more available to the public.

From the findings in this section it can be concluded that the amount of dissatisfaction expressed with the political content of materials in the library is affected by the respondent's race, education, age, and political affiliation. It is the Negro, the Democrat, the young and the better educated person who most often expresses dissatisfaction with the liberal material available in the library.

Attitude Toward Review Boards

In this section the intention is to study the attitudes of the people of Illinois toward a question regarding the desirability of having community review boards in public libraries. A "Community Review Board" is generally defined as a group of community members appointed to aid the librarian in the final selection of books considered appropriate for the library collection.

The book selection policy in public libraries has traditionally been to place the full responsibility for choosing library material on the director or the head librarian. Although in practice the actual selection is usually done by a committee of professional library employees, the director is still held accountable for what is found on the shelves of his library. The library board of trustees, except in the very smallest libraries, entrusts to the director of the library the selection of materials. Although the librarian is entrusted with this responsibility, he does not make his decisions on book selection with complete independence. He must make his final decisions by taking into consideration the many different types of persons and groups who use the library. Periodically, complaints are voiced by patrons in all walks of life concerning the omissions or additions of certain books to the library. Mothers who are concerned about the reading habits of their children, religious leaders who feel their denomination is inadequately represented, political zealots with various demands and ideologies, and minority groups who feel they are being discriminated against, are but a few of the interest groups the librarian must consider in making his selections.

In spite of the great responsibility involved in this role as selector of material and despite the periodic harassment from patrons concerning his abilities in this area, the librarian is reluctant to share his responsibility with people outside his profession. Although he needs the support of the people for his decisions and encourages suggestions from them concerning materials to be made available in the library, he feels that only "librarians and teachers are professional people qualified by educational preparation and experience to do informed book selection."[5] However, the librarian's faith in his professional status and qualifications for making fundamental library decisions is not necessarily recognized by those outside the library profession. This is indicated by the challenges the librarian receives in his decisions to include or exclude various works from the collections. The public's attitude toward review boards is thus greatly dependent on their image of the librarian and their opinion of his qualifications for the role of book selector.

Another issue which affects the desire to adopt community review boards is censorship. As in the case of many elementary and secondary school libraries, the public librarian is confronted with the prospect of review boards to censor the book collection.

> The brunt ofthe censors' attack has fallen upon public and school librarians and upon teachers. This is inevitable, for the schools are close to the people, their activities are in the center of community attention, and they must depend for support upon tax funds. Economic, nationalistic, political and religious groups have been eager to shape public systems of education to fit their particular ideologies;

> in the process, they frequently attempt to control textbook selection and content of libraries used by students.[6]

People who think that censorship or more discrimination in book selection is needed would feel more in control of the situation if members of a community review board (themselves perhaps included) made the final decisions concerning books to be accepted or rejected from the library's collection.

Respondents were asked their opinions on having community review boards to aid in the book selection process in public libraries. As indicated in Table 40 the vast majority feel that community review boards should be set up in public libraries. Seventy-one percent of the sample feel that review boards are needed whereas only 29 percent of the respondents do not favor their adoption. The analysis of background factors reveals that education, age, and income produce significant effects on these findings.[7] There was, however, no significant variation among responses by sex, race, or voting behavior. Even allowing for the possibility that the term "Community Review Board" was widely misunderstood, the heavy majority of "Yes" responses to this question should be startling to librarians.

TABLE 40

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE OF RESPONDENTS TOWARD COMMUNITY REVIEW BOARDS

Question: "Some people feel that community review boards should be set up to accept or reject books and magazines that are being considered for addition to public libraries. Do you?"

Agree	70.7%
Disagree	29.3
Total	100.0%
N =	(2024)

The greatest proportion of those desiring review boards occurs among the respondents of the low and middle level education (Table 41). Eighty percent of those with an elementary

TABLE 41

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE OF RESPONDENTS TOWARD COMMUNITY REVIEW BOARDS BY EDUCATION OF RESPONDENT

		0-8 Years	9-12 Years	13-17+ Years
Agree		80.9%	70.4%	43.6%
Disagree		19.1	29.6	54.4
	Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	N =	(440)	(915)	(420)
P7 .999				

education and 70 percent of those with a high school education feel that review boards are necessary and desirable. In contrast, the majority of respondents with some college background feel that community review boards are not essential to aid in the selection of library materials.

The negative attitude of college educated people toward community control of professional activities is clearly understandable. As shown in Chapter V, the more educated members of the community are more aware of the librarian's professional abilities and therefore respect his ability in book selection.

In general terms, as level of education increases, the demand for censorship decreases. In his study of political tolerance, Stouffer found that the more education a person acquires the more tolerant he becomes of the unknown or controversial.[8] Since the establishment of review boards can be equated with censorship it becomes more apparent why the college educated person is opposed to their adoption.

As age increases, the tendency to support a community review board also increases (Table 42). Three-fourths of those 50 years and older, as compared to only 58 percent of those under 29 years of age, favor the device of community review boards. Approximately two-thirds of the sample between the ages of 30 and 40 years responded that a review board is needed in the public library.

TABLE 42

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE OF RESPONDENTS TOWARD COMMUNITY REVIEW BOARDS BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

	29 and Under	30-49 Years	50 and Over
Agree	58.2%	62.7%	75.0%
Disagree	41.8	37.3	25.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(378)	(689)	(706)
P> .999			

Typically, older people tend to be more conservative about current trends in society. Parents as well as the older generation display their concern by attempting to shelter the young from what they consider harmful or unfit. This protection has often taken the form of censorship of library materials. With community representatives reviewing the material, such persons would perhaps feel more assured that questionable or harmful materials would not be introduced into the library. This concern of the elderly over the current liberalization of society is consistent with their satisfaction with the library's choice of political material, as opposed to youth's dissatisfaction. Through the use of a review board, older people could better control what they feel are the over-liberal trends of today's youth.

As shown in Table 43, there is an inverse relationship between a person's income and his attitude towards the adoption of review boards in the public library. As income increases, the desire for review boards decreases. Only 58 percent of the people earning at least $10,000 a year favor review boards, whereas over three-fourths of those with an income less than $6,000 feel that a community review board is needed. Sixty-five percent or two-thirds of the medium income group ($6-9,999) favor the adoption of review boards.

We have seen that the young, the educated and well-to-do respondents approve of the librarian's autonomy and are less disposed to agree that review boards are needed. We have seen in Chapters II and III that these are the people who use and support the public library. In view of these facts it would be expected that the users of the library would see less need to support review boards.

TABLE 43

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE OF RESPONDENTS TOWARD COMMUNITY REVIEW BOARDS BY INCOME OF RESPONDENT

	$2-5,999	$6-9,999	$10,000 and Over
Agree	78.2%	85.6%	58.2%
Disagree	21.8	34.4	41.8
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(505)	(588)	(603)
P > .999			

As shown in Table 44, as library use increases the demand for a community review board is lowered considerably.

TABLE 44

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ATTITUDE OF RESPONDENTS TOWARD COMMUNITY REVIEW BOARDS BY FREQUENCY OF LIBRARY USE

	Never	Seldom	Frequent
Agree	76.6%	62.7%	49.6%
Disagree	23.4	37.3	50.4
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(863)	(474)	(419)
P > .99			

Approximately half of those who use the library agree to the adoption of review boards as opposed to more than three-fourths of the non-users. This 30 percent difference is understandable for several reasons. People who use the library are more aware of and sympathetic toward the responsibilities of libraries and those who staff them. Also, their higher level of education disposes them to respect the professional abilities of the librarian and his right to exercise them.

Summary

This chapter has focused on two political aspects of the public library, including the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of the population with the liberal and conservative political content of the library, and the public's attitude toward review boards for the public library.

In the first section we find that the people are generally satisfied with all of the political material available, both liberal and conservative. However, important pockets of criticism of political material appeared among the young, the highly educated, the Negro population and the Democrats. Also, an important behavioral variable that affects satisfaction with political materials in public libraries is use of library facilities. Users of the library collection are also those most dissatisfied with its political content.

Regarding the role of community review boards, the majority of the sample feel that community review boards should be set up to accept or reject books and magazines for the public library. It is significant to note, however, that acceptance of the idea of review boards varies greatly with the age of the person, his education, and income. As education and income increase, demand for community review boards decreases. Rate of library use acts as an intervening variable between the background characteristics of the population and their attitude and criticism towards the library. Library users--the young, educated, high income members of the community--do not feel that review boards are needed.

This chapter reveals the general satisfaction among many sectors of the population with the political materials available in the public library. However, while the political balance of literature passes inspection, the general content continues to cause some uneasiness. People feel that the selections of the library should be subject to review by a citizen board. This is not necessarily inconsistent with satisfaction with political materials since it must be remembered that review boards are more concerned with objectionable content than with collection balance. With vocal assertion of individual rights in our society, it is understandable that people, as parents, students, and citizens desire more power in the operation of the institutions which serve them.

References to Chapter IV

[1] Oliver Garceau. *The Public Library in the Political Process* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1949), p. 111.

[2] Broad definitions of these terms are employed in order to include the full range of political thought which approximates other conservative or liberal points of view.

[3] Due to the large number of responses in the "Don't Know" category these answers will be considered as relevant throughout this section.

[4] "Freedom of Access to Libraries"; a report presented at the second session of Council held June 28, 1968 at the Kansas City Annual Conference. ALA Bulletin, 62 (July-August, 1968), 887.

[5] Robert B. Downs, "Trustees and Intellectual Freedom," Illinois Libraries, 45 (May, 1963), 258.

[6] Ibid., p. 257.

[7] Political affiliation is not included in this discussion although it is a significant factor. Due to the unusual election year which involved a temporary third party, the results cannot be considered permanent enough to warrant documentation.

[8] S. A. Stouffer. Communism, Conformity and Civil Liberties (New York, Wiley, 1955), p. 91.

CHAPTER V

THE PUBLIC'S IMAGE OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARIAN

by

Carol Kronus

The subject of this chapter is an exploration into the occupational stereotype of the public librarian. An occupational stereotype is defined as the combination of personal characteristics, attributes, and behavior generally thought to be typical of the occupational member. Stereotypes are usually multi-faceted, including a variety of both complimentary and derogatory qualities. While stereotypes serve as shorthand descriptions of personal characteristics, they also reflect the public's assessment of the attractiveness of the occupational tasks and the social status derived from belonging to the occupation.

Most occupations, particularly the semi-professions, are highly concerned with promoting a favorable image since a positive stereotype plays an important role in the process of professionalization. The content of the stereotype influences the recruitment of talented persons to the occupation. The popular image of the occupational member serves as an important source of information for persons making occupational choices.[1] If the portrayal is favorable, including socially desirable traits such as wealth, social prestige, and power, it will attract many persons to the occupation. If, however, the image pictures the typical occupational member doing routine, or "dirty" work with few rewards, then few talented young people will be recruited. In short, positive stereotypes attract recruits while derogatory ones repel.

Attracting a surplus of occupational hopefuls is one prerequisite to improving the quality of an occupation. With an excess of recruits, training schools can impose higher entrance standards, weeding out less talented persons and accepting only the highly qualified ones. Thus, the success with which the occupational stereotype contributes to the recruitment process plays an important role in improving the quality of its newcomers, or, at the very least, expanding the ranks of the occupation.

The public's image of an occupation can also affect the occupational commitment of its older members. One of the extrinsic rewards of an occupation, expressed in the stereotype, is the degree of community respect or prestige it enjoys. A member of an occupation which commands much respect feels rewarded and reinforced in his occupational commitment while a person in a lower status career who fails to receive sufficient admiration from the public may consider looking for a more rewarding vocation. Thus, such occupations stand to lose their most talented members who have the ambition and ability to move into higher status fields. In fact, a frequent complaint voiced by librarians is their feeling that the public fails to give them the prestige they expect.[2]

One final function served by the vocational stereotype is confined to occupations that are attempting to become full-fledged professions. The content of the occupational image acts as an important indicator of the relative success of this endeavor. In listing the attributes of a profession, most sociologists include the public's assessment of the occupation as a crucial element.[3] For example, Hughes' discussion of society's "mandate" refers to the public's approval of an occupation's right to educate, control, and license its own members.[4] Only occupations that possess a monopoly on crucial skills, knowledge, and expertise are accorded such privileges and status. Thus, a favorable stereotype reflects the public's acceptance of the occupation's claim to superiority and professional prestige while a negative image indicates a rejection. In this manner, the occupational stereotype provides insights into the extent to which the occupation's claim to professional stature is considered valid by the rest of society.

In view of the saliency of vocational images, it is important to study how these depictions arise and are perpetuated. Occupational stereotypes are part of the cultural content of a society, passing from one generation to the next via mass media, parents, and peers. The content of a vocational image also derives from personal variables, such as acquaintance with members of the occupation and attitudes toward certain cultural values. For example, people who possess favorable attitudes toward higher education probably have more respect for the university professor than do those with anti-intellectual values who dismiss him as an "egghead." One can expect persons with different background characteristics to possess dissimilar assessments of an occupation. It becomes meaningful to investigate not only the core stereotype but also the range of variation in the occupational image, with an eye to identifying the social factors that cause differences in occupational perceptions.

A review of the literature on the librarian's stereotype reveals a great deal of discussion and concern but very little research. One study of college students and lay persons paints a picture of the librarian as an educated, intelligent, single woman with inhibited, conservative tendencies.[5] She is derided because of her inhibited personality development but her background characteristics, such as intelligence and breeding, demand respect.

Another study, based on an atypical sample of highly educated journalists, found similar results.[6] Such adjectives as "intelligent," "patient," and "old-maidish" were mentioned. The overall assessment of the librarian was only slightly more favorable than derogatory, with 41 percent of the images judged complimentary in comparison to 39 percent un-favorable portrayals. Summarizing past studies of the librarian's stereotype, we can point out the similarity to the school teacher--respected and admired but not well-liked.

There are several different approaches to a study of the image of an occupation. The most familiar and simplest method is to compile a list of characteristics resulting from an open-ended question. Such a list is helpful in presenting a vivid image of the core stereotype but glosses over inconsistencies and is particularly difficult to analyze in depth.

Another method aims at a comparative arrangement of occupations along the dimension of social prestige. A wide variety of occupations is presented to a sample of persons who rank them according to the social status or attractiveness of the occupation. The result is an overall prestige continuum, of which the most valid is the NORC Scale of Occupational Prestige.[7] Although this approach is particularly valuable for placing occupations in context, it does not attempt to specify the occupational characteristics underlying the prestige rating.

A final approach which corrects this shortcoming is directed toward a study of the individual components of the occupational image, such as the educational attainment and skill level of the work performed by the occupational member. We shall use this method to develop a more detailed picture of the librarian's stereotype. Our analysis centers on the public's perception of the librarian's education and skill level rather than on ascribed characteristics such as sex, marital status, and personality quirks. Information about achieved attributes has a more instrumental value in assessing whether librarianship is succeeding in projecting a professional image.

Perception of the Librarian's Education

In the Omnibus Survey, two questions were asked of the entire sample to assess the public's image of the "typical" public librarian. The first asks respondents to estimate the librarian's educational attainment. As Table 45 shows, the most common perception of the librarian's training is that he has a college degree with library training as part of the BA.

TABLE 45

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERCEIVED EDUCATION OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARIAN

Question: "What type of education and training do you think the average public librarian has?"

a. No formal education or training as a librarian, but a high school diploma and experience working in a library.	29.6%
b. No formal education or training as a librarian but a college degree and experience working in a library.	12.5
c. Some formal education and training as a librarian as part of the college course program.	41.6
d. Some formal education and training as a librarian as part of the post-college course program	16.3
Total	100.0%
N =	(1742)

The next largest category estimates a lower educational attainment, at only the high school level, with only work experience to commend him for the job. The other two choices, non-library college degree or graduate library training, attracted equal proportions of the sample. Thus, there is a bimodal distribution in assessing the educational preparation of the average public librarian. A large proportion think he has very little education while about the same number perceive him as highly trained. This difference in the public's image of the librarian's education raises the question of whether those with a low opinion of the librarian's qualifications are differentiated from people with more positive opinions in their background characteristics. In the remainder of this section, the effects on respondents' answers of such attributes as age, sex, education, and income are studied.[8]

The age of the respondent is significantly related to the perception of the librarian's training (Table 46). The older the person (particularly those 50 years and older), the lower his opinion of the public librarian's education.

TABLE 46

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERCEIVED EDUCATION BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

	29 and Under	30-49 Years	50 and Over
High School/ College degree	37.2%	39.8%	47.1%
Undergraduate Library training	46.8	43.9	36.2
Graduate Library training	16.0	16.3	16.7
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(401)	(699)	(682)

$P > .995$

Significantly more old than young respondents think that librarians have no formal professional training, while more people under 50 think librarians have an undergraduate degree in librarianship. There is no difference in the proportion who think that the average public librarian has gone to graduate school; about 16 percent of each group fall into this category.

Analysis of this question, controlling for education, reveals a powerful positive relationship between the respondent's education and his estimate of the librarian's education (Table 47). In other words, the higher the respondent's educational attainment, the higher his perception of the librarian's preparation. Almost one-quarter of those with a college education think that the typical librarian has a

TABLE 47

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERCEIVED EDUCATION BY EDUCATION OF RESPONDENT

	0-8 Years	9-12 Years	13-17+ Years
High School/ College	52.9%	42.6%	30.0%
Undergraduate Library Training	33.3	43.3	46.0
Graduate Library Training	13.8	14.1	24.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(408)	(954)	(424)

$P > .999$

graduate degree in librarianship, in comparison to only 14 percent of those with a grade school or high school education. At the other end of the scale, people with little education have a very low perception of the librarian's expertise, for more than half think the librarian goes through no formal preparation for his job.

As with respondents' education, there is a positive relationship between respondents' income and their estimation of the librarian's qualifications (Table 48). Those at the low end of the income scale see the typical librarian as possessing no special work-related training, while high-income respondents perceive him as a well-trained practitioner.

Thus, it appears that people who have a favorable image of the librarian, at least in terms of his education, are young, well-educated and financially secure. One may point out that these are also the personal attributes that characterize the typical library patron. This observation raises the question of whether acquaintance with librarians, derived from library use, is actually related to differences in the perception of the public librarian's education level.

In fact, there is a strong positive relationship between the frequency of patronage and the respondent's estimate of the librarian's education (Table 49). Fifteen percent more people who never use the public library selected the lowest education levels than did those who are frequent patrons.

TABLE 48

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERCEIVED EDUCATION BY INCOME OF RESPONDENT

	\$2-5,999	\$6-9,999	\$10,000 and Over
High School/College	49.0%	44.6%	34.8%
Undergraduate Library Training	35.3	42.3	46.1
Graduate Library Training	15.7	13.1	19.1
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(484)	(588)	(629)

$P > .999$

Accordingly, significantly more library users than non-users think the public librarian has undergraduate training in librarianship. The more people use the public library, the higher their estimation of the professional preparation of its employees.

TABLE 49

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERCEIVED EDUCATION BY FREQUENCY OF LIBRARY USE

	Never	Seldom	Frequently
High School/College	48.4%	37.6%	33.5%
Undergraduate Library Training	35.8	46.0	48.8
Graduate Library Training	15.8	16.4	17.7
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(834)	(489)	(436)

$P > .999$

Other independent variables that did not prove significant in the analysis were race, sex, political affiliation or voting rate.

Although the occupational stereotype has a validity in its own right as a social fact, it is informative to contrast the average educational estimation with the actual educational achievement of public librarians. The majority of the respondents, regardless of their age, education, income, or library usage pattern, greatly underestimated the librarian's educational attainment. Only about 16 percent think he has graduate library training, while in fact, the chances are one in three that he has a Master's degree.[9] The median education for all public librarians is 17+ years, meaning that fully half have more than a year of education beyond the BA. The public's perception of the librarian's preparation lags far behind his actual achievement. Although librarians are getting more and more training, even those people who come into contact with them as frequent library users do not realize it.

Perception of the Librarian's Work

In addition to the apparent education of the average public librarians, the respondents were asked to specify their perception of the skill level of the librarian's work. Table 50 indicates the rather low assessment of library work in the opinion of the respondents. Almost 45 percent describe

TABLE 50

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERCEIVED SKILL LEVEL OF LIBRARY WORK

Question: "Which of the following statements would you say best describes the work public librarians do?"

1) Routine clerical work, such as a bookkeeper or sales clerk	44.3%
2) Skilled, but routine work, such as a draftsman or accountant	21.8
3) Administrative and supervisory work such as a business executive or school principal	28.4
4) Professional work such as a lawyer, architect or minister	5.5
Total	100.0%
N =	(1786)

library work as routine work on a par with clerical and sales jobs. Another quarter think that the work done by public librarians is skilled but still routinized. A total of 66 percent of the sample see library work as no higher than the lower white-collar levels, with a heavy emphasis on routine repetitious tasks. Only one-third of the sample perceive library work as administrative or professional, and only 6 percent of this group define the work done by librarians as truly professional, on a par with the well-established professions.

When we control certain background factors to assess their effect, we find a great deal of similarity with the results of education question. The same four variables of age, education, income, and library usage produce the only significant differences.

As Table 51 indicates, people over 50 have the lowest opinions of librarians' expertise. About 10 percent more respondents in this age group than in younger groups think the librarian does only routine clerical work. In contrast, significantly more respondents under 50 define his work as skilled. Elderly persons have a consistent view of the librarian as a person with no special occupational training doing a routine clerical job.

TABLE 51

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERCEIVED SKILL LEVEL
OF LIBRARY WORK BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

	29 and Under	30-49 Years	50 and Over
Routine Clerical	41.7%	40.3%	50.2%
Skilled	26.7	23.6	16.2
Administrative/Professional	31.6	36.1	33.6
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(408)	(720)	(699)
P > .999			

Turning to the effects of education, we find that the more education possessed by the respondent, the more positive his opinion of library work (Table 52). More than one-fourth

TABLE 52

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERCEIVED SKILL LEVEL OF LIBRARY WORK BY EDUCATION OF RESPONDENT

	0-8 Years	9-12 Years	13-17+ Years
Routine Clerical	54.9%	47.1%	27.9%
Skilled	17.7	19.9	28.6
Administrative/Professional	27.4	33.0	43.5
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(419)	(974)	(437)
P > .999			

more people with a low level of education (0-8 years) than those with a college degree see library work as unskilled or clerical. College-educated people have much more positive images of library work--almost 30 percent consider it skilled work and fully 43 percent see the public librarian doing administrative or professional tasks.

Categorization of respondents according to their yearly incomes reveals the same pattern--higher income people have better opinions of library work than those with lower incomes (Table 53). As income rises, so does the proportion of persons assigning a higher skill level to library work. In fact,

TABLE 53

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERCEIVED SKILL LEVEL OF LIBRARY WORK BY INCOME OF RESPONDENT

	$2-5,999	$6-9,999	$10,000 and Over
Routine Clerical	50.1%	47.9%	35.1%
Skilled	19.5	18.6	25.7
Administrative/Professional	30.4	33.5	39.2
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(497)	(609)	(658)
P > .999			

income is second only to education in affecting the level of assessment of the librarian's work. Half of those with low incomes define the work as routine clerical, in comparison to only 35 percent of those with an income of over $10,000. At the other end of the scale, significantly more respondents with a high yearly income view the librarian's job as either skilled or administrative. In fact, a definition of the librarian as an administrator or professional is the modal response for high income respondents.

Finally, an investigation of the effects of library usage shows the same results (Table 54). People who never use the library have a low opinion of the work done by librarians, while those who patronize the library are much more sympathetic and respectful of his work. The important distinction is between users and non-users. There is no significant difference in opinion between those who use the library at different frequency rates.

TABLE 54

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PERCEIVED SKILL LEVEL OF LIBRARY WORK BY FREQUENCY OF LIBRARY USE

	Never	Seldom	Frequently
Routine Clerical	50.7%	40.0%	35.4%
Skilled	18.6	23.1	26.4
Administrative/Professional	30.7	36.9	38.2
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
N =	(862)	(498)	(443)

$P > .999$

Discussion

On the basis of the results, it is clear that attitudes toward the public librarian's education and work can be combined to form a meaningful description of the librarian's stereotype. People have a coherent image of the public librarian. If they think he has a low level of education, they also think his work demands few special skills. Conversely, people who see the typical public librarian as highly trained in librarianship also define his work as administrative or professional.[10] Therefore the results of the analysis of the two items can be discussed together.

Four background variables are related to significant differences in the respondents' image of the public librarian. They are education, age, income, and frequency of library usage. The first three variables are highly related to the last, as shown in Chapter I, which raises an analytical question about the relative contribution of background versus behavioral variables.[11]

Education appears to be one of the most powerful variables that affects the public's image of the public librarian. There are several possible reasons why educated people have a more positive picture of the librarian than do the uneducated. First, it is likely that highly educated people have requested and received the more professional, skilled services provided by librarians. More of them ask reference questions,[12] request special books, and, generally, demand more attention and service from the librarian. Therefore, they acquire a broader and deeper knowledge of his occupational skills and abilities. Also, people with more education have used college and university libraries, which typically employ highly trained personnel. Their positive experience in these libraries may raise their opinion of public librarians in a form of halo effect. Whatever the reason, it is clear that people with more education have a more complimentary definition of the public librarian, in terms of both training and work.

As education is positively related to the librarian's image, age is negatively associated. People 50 years of age and older are clearly separated from younger persons by their lower opinions of the librarian's training and work. Why are elderly persons especially critical of librarians? Is there a realistic component to their derogations? First, as was found in Chapter I, library usage drops off as age increases. Thus, respondents over 50 probably used the library more frequently 20 or 30 years before, in the 1930's and 40's. We also know that the upgrading of the librarian's education is a recent phenomenon, as revealed in the inverse relationship between age and education. The median age of the female public librarian with a bachelor's degree is 51.2; and 65 for the male. In contrast, librarians with master's degrees are much younger--42 for the women and 35 for the men.[13]

Given the recent upsurge of advanced education for librarians, the librarians encountered by people who used the library 25 or 30 years ago were clearly less educated than those encountered by current patrons. Thus, when the people over 50 portray their image of the public librarian as having only a high school or college degree, they are quite realistic and accurate in terms of their past experience. In contrast, younger people (more of whom patronize the library than do older people) are acquainted with librarians who are more highly trained and thus more skilled in filling patron's needs.

The third background variable that differentiates among respondents is their income. People with a higher income have more respect for the public librarian than do lower income persons. While much of this effect is probably the result of more education among upper income persons, the fit between income and education is not perfect. Income may well contribute an independent effect.

The question of why higher income persons are more likely to possess a positive image of the librarian may be answered in terms of a class effect. This occurs when members of a certain social stratum are more willing to assign a higher social status to occupations in the same stratum than are those in different strata. This phenomenon also occurs in occupational prestige rankings where members of an occupation rate their own field higher than do others.[14] In this manner, people in the higher income brackets (who most likely hold managerial and professional jobs) consider librarians who perform many similar tasks, such as supervising and recordkeeping, as members of the same social class as their own.

In addition to the similarity in work, there are other reasons behind this apparent class effect. First, persons with a high level of income have more education and white collar jobs, which act in common to insure their continued high rank in the social system. Their professional and executive positions tend to be more secure than those at lower occupational levels. Also, with higher educational preparation, they are protected from sinking below a comfortable standard of living. All of these factors reinforce and insure the security of their social positions. These persons are "status-safe," which allows them to grant more social status to others than are people with lower social status who run a higher risk of moving downward.

Another sentiment reinforcing this social class effect is based on attitudes toward the struggle for professionalization. Like librarians, many other white collar occupations are trying to improve the social and financial standing of their occupations.[15] Nurses, social workers, engineers, accountants, and teachers engage in such activities as changing their job titles, developing occupational codes, getting more education and upgrading their occupational tasks. It stands to reason that people who belong to professionizing occupations are sympathetic to others who are engaged in the same endeavor. Thus, people from middle and high income levels are more willing to grant librarians professional status than are lower income individuals.

The last variable that affects the respondents' image of the librarian is their acquaintance with librarians in their work setting. The index to personal acquaintance with role occupants is the rate of library usage. People who use the public library come away with a better image of the librarian than those who never use the library. In addition, frequent users see the librarian in a better light than do people who use the library less frequently. This distinction between users and non-users is based on their difference in information. Non-users accept the stereotype of the librarian with no other source of knowledge. Such a stereotype is clearly uncomplimentary, depicting the average public librarian as a person with a rudimentary education doing unskilled clerical tasks. On the other hand, people who use the public library see the librarian in action and have a more personal knowledge on which to base their opinion. They reject the core image as outdated and unfounded. It is to the credit of the occupation that personal acquaintance with librarians is instrumental in producing a positive image.

An investigation of how the public views the public librarian has revealed several important findings. First, the basic stereotype is uncomplimentary. The librarian is seen as educated but not well educated, doing skilled but not professional work.

More important than uncovering the average image is the identification of social variables that distinguish librarian critics from supporters. Librarians draw their support from younger people of the middle and upper social classes and find their critics among elderly persons who belong to lower social strata. The public in direct contact with the library admires the librarian and the work he does. On the other hand, those who know least about the library and its employees are the most critical.

In conclusion, one can hypothesize about the possibility of improving the librarian's image. The fact that sympathy and respect resides among the educated strata who are personally acquainted with role occupants indicates that improvements in the educational level of the population and attendant increases in library usage will lead to a closer fit between the librarian's characteristics and the public's perceptions. The continued upgrading of library personnel in their professional preparation is the most important process in providing admirable role occupants to come into contact with the public. The process of altering the occupational stereotype is dependent upon improving the quality of its members.

In addition to raising the educational standards for librarians, the possibility of changing the visibility of library tasks needs to be considered. With the exception of reference work, most of the more professional, skilled library tasks are invisible to the public. Such activities as selecting, classifying and cataloging material are hidden to the view of the layman, even to those who frequent the library. Library tasks that are open to view include low-level clerical work such as shelving material, stamping due dates, and arranging cards. Thus, even to the most sympathetic library patron, much of library work appears to be less than professional. This problem of the invisibility of professional tasks and the openness of clerical routines should be considered if the image of library work is to improve.

References to Chapter V

[1] For general readings on occupational choice and importance of various influences, see Eli Ginzberg, et al. Occupational Choice (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951); also, Anne Roe, The Psychology of Occupations (New York: John Wiley & Son, 1957).

[2] Harold Lancour, "The Librarian's Search for Status," Library Quarterly, 31 (October, 1961), 369-81.

[3] For work on the professions see Howard S. Becker, "The Nature of a Profession," in Nelson B. Henry (ed.), Education for the Professions (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962); Everett C. Hughes, Men and Their Work (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1958).

[4] Hughes, p. 78-87.

[5] William H. Form, "Popular Images of Librarians," Library Journal, 71 (June, 1946), 837-855.

[6] "Attitudes Toward Public Libraries and Librarians," Library Journal, 83 (November 1, 1958), 3056-3058.

[7] Albert J. Reiss, with Otis Dudly Duncan, Paul K. Hatt and Cecil C. North, Occupations and Social Status (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1961).

[8] In our analysis, we shall collapse these categories into the following three--high school or college degree (1 & 2); undergraduate library training (3); graduate library training (4). Such a procedure is necessary for more complex analysis but does not destroy the bimodal distribution.

[9] Henry T. Drennan and Richard L. Darling, Library Manpower: Occupational Characteristics of Public and School Librarians (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966), p. 3.

[10] The correlation of the perceptions of the librarian's education with the skill level of his work reveals a gamma of .58. This strong correlation provides additional evidence for concluding that these two items are measuring the same attitude--the librarian's stereotype.

[11] This question will be the basis for a planned article in which much more sophisticated statistical analysis will be used to solve this problem of colinearity.

[12] "Reference Service in American Public Libraries Serving Populations of 10,000 or More," Occasional Papers, University of Illinois Library School, 61 (March, 1961), 7.

[13] Drennan and Darling, p. 4.

[14] J. E. Gerstle and L. K. Cohen, "Dissensus, Situs and Egocentrism in Occupational Ranking," British Journal of Sociology, 15 (September, 1964), 254-261.

[15] Harold Wilensky, "The Professionalization of Everyone?" American Journal of Sociology, 70 (1964), 137-58.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Judging from the findings in this study of public opinion on several questions relating to public libraries, the library continues to operate essentially as a class-based or elite institution. Its use and support come chiefly from certain limited portions of society. Those most likely to use the library are the young, the college educated, and the financially well-off. These same groups are most critical of public library services and facilities, but their criticism is positive because it indicates their awareness and concern for the library. The library serves primarily a middle and upper-class audience that generally seeks knowledge for achievement, reads books, and is well-acquainted with the use of libraries.

As various chapters have shown, this elite group is the most satisfied with the existing method of financing the library and the most willing to support tax increases to improve the public library. The younger the respondent, the higher his level of education and income, and the more often he uses the library, the greater his preference for local financing and the greater his willingness to approve tax increases.

Middle and upper class persons also respect the librarian and his training. They tend to be more aware of the librarian's expertise and have more respect for his ability to run the library and to select the materials, as indicated by their disapproval of review boards. In summary, the public library finds its support from the same group which supports schools, hospitals, and museums, is most politically aware, and is most involved in the community.

The public library has a limited primary public for a number of reasons. As an educational resource, it competes with other institutions such as schools and bookstores, and with the mass media, such as television, radio, newspapers and magazines. More importantly, however, the library generally fails to meet the needs of groups other than the middle and upper classes. Members of the lower classes, with their lower levels of education, lack the reading skills and the motivation to read. Another group that largely disregards the library is the aged. They often have visual difficulties and find it hard to read standard print sizes. Finally, many Negroes also lack the skills necessary to use the library but more importantly do not find there the materials suited to their interests and needs. They express dissatisfaction with libraries, yet they also express a desire to support tax increases to change and improve the library.

Compounding the fact that many segments in society avoid libraries because they lack reading skills are the psychological barriers of apathy and fear of the library. The library must work actively to overcome these feelings of alienation and hostility on the part of non-users if it wishes to increase its relevance to all persons in society.

Finding that the library serves only selected parts of the American society leads one to ask whether it should continue as an elite institution or seek a broader and deeper base of use and support in society. The main reason why the library may not be able to continue as a class-based service is financial. The majority of respondents in this study would not be inclined to approve a tax proposal involving large increases. If the library is to continue as a public institution it requires at least a majority of the voters supporting it and to do this the library must increase its appeal.

The public library has enjoyed an almost sacrosanct position in the community, but if it is to receive adequate support from taxes, it must compete favorably with other social services. Thus, to win a favorable position in terms of priorities the library must have a broader base of support and a greater degree of importance in the community. In addition, there is an important movement in society to raise the socio-economic position of disadvantaged citizens by providing new opportunities and increased services. The public library is only beginning to respond to these pressures. Even allowing for the strength of another important societal trend--the increasing stress on education and the resulting rise in educational level of the population--the library will not automatically receive more support. There are other educational alternatives such as buying books or watching educational television; also the library has to compete for funds with other community facilities more directly related to education. The library will have to reach more of the people and make the most of its unique position in the community as a voluntary educational and recreational service.

In view of the library's necessity to broaden and deepen its base of appeal, some recommendations can be offered.

First, the library needs to retain the interest and involvement of its present core of middle and upper class users. Since this group is dissatisfied with branch libraries and with parking facilities, the library should try to improve its branches in suburban or middle and upper class neighborhoods. It should also try to provide more specialized materials suited to this group and to develop adequate and convenient parking facilities around the main library buildings.

In addition, the library should try to attract a larger portion of the non-users. It can do this by introducing both internal improvements and community changes. One important area of internal change involves the special tailoring of collections to meet the differential needs of the prospective clientele. As noted, specialized material in suburban branches for the well-educated would be one way to improve areas of dissatisfaction. This strategy also applies to Negro and lower class communities. Lower class residents, who generally have fewer reading skills, would be more attracted to libraries which have collections of easier material and mobility-oriented material. For example, ghetto libraries could include material on how to pass various civil service exams and librarians could sponsor training sessions on test-taking. In addition, self-help and improvement books, especially of a "do-it-yourself" nature, would appeal to these prospective users. In ghetto areas, the collection should focus on black culture and on other material suited to the needs of ghetto dwellers.

Finally, libraries should increase their services to hospitals, since patients would benefit from the services and be more likely to use the library after they leave. Stocking material with large print would do much to attract elderly persons with sight difficulties.

In addition to improving collections, libraries could increase their clientele by making certain changes in building facilities. This would include such things as escalators and ramps, making it easier for the elderly to use the library. Another important suggestion is the revival of neighborhood store-front libraries in ghetto areas. This form of branch library would be much less expensive than the usual form and is much more accessible and easily tailored to the needs of the area. Store-front libraries can employ local residents at most levels of the profession. Mobile units can be employed with good results in ghetto and rural areas to reach those who ordinarily do not come into contact with libraries. Bussing services have also been suggested as a way to bring ghetto children to libraries.

Changes in community involvement can also help the library gain a broader base of support. The library should increase its publicity about its present services in order to make people more aware of existing programs. Knowledge and appreciation of professional services offered by the library should help to dispel the stereotype of the librarian as an educated clerk.

The library would benefit from making the public more aware of alternative tax methods for support. The public needs to know more about the federal government projects through LSCA and about state programs for developing library systems. If the public is aware of other methods of finance, it may be easier for the library to gain support, since the present tax structure is becoming inadequate and some degree of change is inevitable.

In general, the library must work at creating an image of importance to the community. The library must become more visible and more relevant both as a recreational and as an educational institution, since the library must increase its power to compete favorably with other community services for the tax dollar.

There should be greater public involvement in library decisions. Judging from the large portion of respondents who approve of review boards, it is obvious that people want to feel that they have some influence on library decision-making. While review boards may not be the answer, the important point is that people would become more interested in libraries if they had some degree of involvement in decision-making. To accomplish this, libraries could send periodic questionnaires to local residents asking about desired services and giving residents an opportunity to suggest books and other materials they would like. Community newspapers can be used to introduce new material and mail-in forms for residents to register their preferences. In general, local libraries ought to do more than they have done in the past to gather periodic information about the attitudes, suggestions and complaints of the public they serve.

Another suggestion, far from novel but still not as common as it could be, is for the library to offer its facilities to a variety of community programs. As people use the library for other activities, they will learn about the library's regular book-related services.

Finally, some methodological recommendations. The random sampling method used here, which gets at a broader base of respondents rather than simply library cardholders and users, should be employed more generally in library surveys. Since the main problem involves the introduction of additional clientele, it is crucial to concentrate on the biases and objections of non-users, not those already committed to the library.

Also, the results of this survey indicate that it might be valuable to conduct experimental studies of community review boards to see whether they would improve library-community relations and whether this public involvement affects library usage.

Finally, the results of this study should provide additional evidence that it is time for a new *Public Library Inquiry*. Since the original study was done 25 years ago, there have been many important societal changes such as increasing the level of education, a growing proportion of the aged, and radical shifts in public policy. These changes are sure to affect public opinion and use patterns of the public library and such shifts should be studied in a comprehensive manner.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONS FOR OMNIBUS SURVEY FROM LIBRARY RESEARCH CENTER

1. Here are some of the uses people make of public libraries. (Show checklist consisting of items under 2.) How often do you use a public library? (Check one)

____ a. more than once a week
____ b. about once a week
____ c. once or twice a month
____ d. once every three months
____ e. once a year
____ f. never (Skip to Q. 4)
____ g. none available (Skip to Q. 4)

2. The last time you used the public library, was it for any of the following purposes? (Check as many as apply)

____ a. checking out a book(s)
____ b. telephoning for information
____ c. using reference material
____ d. taking child to the library
____ e. doing school homework
____ f. browsing and reading newspapers, magazines, books
____ g. asking for assistance from the librarian
____ h. borrowing films or records
____ i. other (please specify) ______________________________

3. Since you use the public library, we are interested in knowing if you are satisfied, or dissatisfied with each of the following aspects of public library services:

	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	No Opinion	Don't Exist
a. library building	___	___	___	___
b. hours open	___	___	___	___
c. service from staff	___	___	___	___
d. non-fiction books	___	___	___	___
e. fiction books	___	___	___	___
f. reference books and services	___	___	___	___
g. parking facilities	___	___	___	___
h. films and records (if available)	___	___	___	___
i. branch libraries (if available)	___	___	___	___

4. In your opinion, what should be the major source of financial support for public libraries? (Check one)

___ a. city, village or township government
___ b. county government
___ c. school district
___ d. library fund drives
___ e. United Fund, Community Chest, etc.
___ f. state government
___ g. federal government
___ h. membership fees from users
___ i. no opinion

5. Would you vote "yes" or "no" on a proposal to raise the library tax rate if it meant:

a. more or better services ___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know
b. a new or expanded building? ___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know

6. Do you think public libraries provide enough materials:

a. with a conservative point of view ___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know

b. with a liberal point of view ___ Yes ___ No ___ Don't Know

7. Some people feel that community review boards should be set up to approve or disapprove of books and magazines added to public libraries. Do you (check one)

___ a. agree strongly with this position

___ b. agree somewhat

___ c. have no opinion on the matter

___ d. disagree somewhat

___ e. disagree strongly

8. What type of education and training do you think the average public librarian has? (Check one)

___ a. No formal education or training in librarianship, but a high school diploma and experience working in a library

___ b. No formal education or training in librarianship, but a college degree and experience working in a library

___ c. Some formal education and training in librarianship as part of the college course program

___ d. Some formal education and training in librarianship as a graduate student, after first having received a college degree

___ e. Don't know

9. Which of the following statements would you say best describes the work public librarians do? (Check one)

___ a. Routine clerical work, such as a bookkeeper or sales clerk might do

___ b. Skilled, but routine work, such as a draftsman or an accountant might do

___ c. Administrative and supervisory work, such as a business executive or a school principal might do

___ d. Professional work such as a lawyer, architect, or minister might do

___ e. Don't know

PART IV

CAMPAIGN CONDUCT AND THE OUTCOME OF LIBRARY BOND REFERENDUMS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH METHODS

A vote on a bond issue to expand a public library is a test of public willingness to provide financial support for libraries since voter approval of the bond issue normally results in an increase in taxes to finance bond redemption. Such a vote is preceded by attempts to explain to the community why the bond issue has been proposed and why it is needed. Recent literature on this topic (summarized in Appendix C) indicates that a great deal has been written about such pre-referendum activity. Garrison has pointed out that the emphasis in the literature on library referendum campaigns

> is almost always on the techniques used in promoting the bond issue. What is missing is any theoretical framework within which it is possible to compare campaigns and election results so as to find basic determinants of success and failure which could guide referendum sponsors to a better understanding of how to direct campaign efforts.[1]

The purpose of this report is to begin to develop such a framework by focusing on selected factors occurring during the pre-referendum activity in several communities in order to detect differences in these factors between communities in which voters approved the bond issue and communities in which the bond issue was defeated. By comparing selected factors in several situations, this report contributes systematically gathered information to the literature on library elections. It attempts to build on the reportorial articles common in the literature of library science dealing with referendums.

An examination of pre-referendum activity may have significance because, if particular activities are associated with successful outcomes, planners of future campaigns might emphasize these activities. The librarian and board have a great deal of control over the type of pre-referendum activity in which they engage. For example, they can decide to sponsor coffee hours to publicize the bond issue, or they can actively discourage holding coffee hours. They can choose to ignore negative comments made about the building, or they can attempt to answer all such comments which come to their attention.

Moreover, an examination of the role of the campaign in one aspect of the political process, library elections, may shed additional light on the worth of such activity. The authors of Voting, a study of the 1948 presidential campaign, found that the campaign had only a minimal effect in changing people's voting decisions.[2] Despite this, politicians still wage campaigns.

The term "campaign" is used in this report to refer to the activities of proponents of the bond issue during the weeks preceding voting. These activities are restricted to those related to explaining the need for the bond issue and/or persuading people to vote in favor of it. While these activities are at least somewhat organized, they do not have the high degree of organization used in campaigns for state or national office.

Campaign Conduct

The variables selected for inclusion in this study and which, together, make up what is termed "campaign conduct" are personal contact, participation in the campaign by interested citizens, length of the campaign, means used to finance the campaign, publicity given to floor plans of the expanded library, use of a theme or slogan, and opposition to the bond issue.

Personal Contact

The extent of personal contact evident in the campaign was considered to be an important variable.[3] Because the study was carried out after the campaigns had been concluded, it was impractical to interview voters about the extent of their contact with proponents of the referendum during the campaign. Rather, four techniques involving contact between referendum proponents and the community were isolated--(1) efforts to get out the vote, (2) speeches to community groups, (3) coffee hours, and (4) public meetings--and their presence or absence in each campaign was determined. It was hypothesized that more of these elements would be present in successful campaigns than in unsuccessful campaigns.

The first element, efforts to get out the vote, was expected to involve an initial contact with voters to determine their voting intention, followed by reminder on election day for those who favored the proposition that the library needed their vote.

Speeches to community groups were viewed in this study as a second means of providing personal contact between proponents of the bond issue and residents of the community. Speeches have been a part of several recent library referendum campaigns.[4]

Coffee hours, the third means of personal contact investigated, have also been used in several library campaigns.[5] These gatherings in someone's home can provide an opportunity for neighbors to gather to obtain information about the bond issue. Clearly, a well informed supporter of the referendum proposition should be present.

Several types of public meetings have been held during the library bond issue campaigns described in the literature.[6] Meetings of library boards with municipal officials are normally held before each referendum. A second type of meeting may be planned to serve as the opening of the campaign, and for this meeting representation from every group in the community would be sought so that bond issue proponents could explain the need for library expansion and secure help from community organizations--both in manpower and in promises of publicity.[7] A third type of public meeting used in the campaigns studied involved a forum called by the League of Women Voters to present candidates and issues which were to be voted on in the community.

Other Variables

All of the recent reports on library referendums urge that the campaign be carried out primarily by citizens.[8] The activity of interested citizens was examined from two points of view: (1) Was the person in charge of the campaign an interested citizen or a member of the library board? and (2) How many and what kind of community groups participated in the pro-library campaign?

The length of the campaign has also been discussed in the literature. Archer and Lincoln suggest limiting the intensive effort of the campaign to between four and six weeks.[9]

Means of financing the campaign may also influence voters. Archer suggests that publicity be given to the fact that the campaign is being paid for by gifts and not from tax or trust funds.[10] Chait also warns that money will be needed to pay for advertising and printed material.[11] It was expected that successful campaigns would exhibit greater reliance on means other than library funds than would unsuccessful campaigns.

In his description of strategy used to promote a successful bond referendum in Oak Park, Illinois, Stoffel wrote, "plans and pictures of the proposed building which would be shown to the public would be of a general nature with a bare minimum of details." This decision was reached because in an earlier, unsuccessful campaign, "there was much public criticism of minor details in the building plans."[12] From this comment, it appeared that there might be some value in determining what publicity had been given to floor plans during the campaigns being studied.

Slogans are frequently a part of election campaigns, and so the slogan and its use in the campaign was one additional component of campaign conduct studied.[13]

The final component of each campaign which was investigated was the opposition encountered during the campaign. Recent articles on library referendums discussed in the literature survey say very little about opposition since few of the referendums on which the reports are based encountered much opposition.[14] On the other hand, the study of defeated referendums by Lindahl and Berner reveals that the defeated referendums encountered public opposition.[15] Opposition, for the purpose of this study consisted of four elements: (1) the sort of people who opposed the bond issue, (2) activities of opponents, (3) reasons for opposition, and (4) response of proponents to opposition. Using this information, the campaigns could be grouped with regard to the opposition encountered to determine variations between successful and unsuccessful campaigns.

Limitations of Definition

These seven variables, pertaining to (1) degree of personal contact, (2) citizen participation, (3) campaign length, (4) financing, (5) publicity given floor plans, (6) slogans, and (7) opposition, make up what is referred to in this report as "campaign conduct." Other variables could have been examined, and should be examined in future studies, but these six variables were felt to be important and to provide a useful starting point for examination of library bond issue campaigns. Because of the selection exercised, this report does not deal with all activities which took place during the campaign period. Thus, it would be improper to conclude that the variables examined in this report necessarily constitute a complete campaign.

Research Methods

The comparative case study approach was chosen for this investigation of library bond referendum campaigns because this approach makes possible detailed comparisons among a small number of cases. This approach permits comparison of campaigns which preceded a favorable vote on the bond issue with campaigns which preceded a negative vote and provides a framework within which to isolate similarities and differences in campaigns which resulted in different outcomes.

Examination of a restricted number of campaigns was indicated because of the relatively small number of referendums for library bonds which occur in comparison with referendums for bonds for other purposes. During the ten years from 1953 through 1962, for instance, the number of library bond issues voted on in Illinois ranged from two to nine each year.[16] In comparison, over 150 referendums for school building bonds were held in Illinois during the single year of 1962.[17] The lack of a nationwide listing of library referendums ruled out the possibility of selecting for examination a probability sample of all library referendums occurring in the country at large.

Information about each campaign was gathered through interviews with people who had participated in one or more phases of the campaign. Printed and manuscript sources of information about each campaign were also consulted. These sources included newspaper clipping files, minutes of library board meetings, publicity brochures, and files or scrapbooks maintained by the libraries.

Selection of Cases

Criteria used to select cases for study were: (1) referendum held during 1967 or 1968, (2) referendum held in Illinois, (3) referendum held in a city or village having a population of 10,000 or more in 1960, and (4) library serves a city or village. Bond referendums meeting these criteria were identified by examination of newspaper clippings and through use of annual reports submitted by public libraries to the Illinois State Library. Using this method involves the limitation that some referendums may have been held which were not identified. However, since conclusions drawn from the findings of this study can be applied only to the referendums examined, this limitation is less serious than if the conclusions were to be held generally applicable.

Recent referendums were chosen because of the need to talk with people in each community who had been involved in the referendum campaign, either as supporters or opponents. It was felt that going back to campaigns held before 1967 would lower the quality and reliability of information obtained from interviewees. Experience gained in the study of defeated referendums (Part I of these Studies) indicated that a great deal of information could be elicited after a lapse of two years' time.

By restricting the cases to one state, Illinois, some control was maintained over possible confounding variables. Legal requirements for referendums vary from state to state,[18] but the same state laws apply to all of the cases used in this study. Restricting the cases to one state also has the effect of eliminating whatever differences might occur due to geographical dispersion. Geographical concentration was furthered by studying only referendums in communities which are part of the Chicago metropolitan area. Similarities and differences between the communities, the referendums, and the libraries are described further in Chapter II.

Referendums to be studied were arbitrarily restricted to those held in cities or villages having a 1960 population of 10,000 or more. Since Illinois law permits the establishment of libraries in several types of local government units--cities, villages, townships, counties, and special library districts,[19] the urban forms of local government, city and village, were chosen to simplify comparisons.

Using the specified criteria for selection, a total of nine bond referendums held in seven cities or villages in the Chicago suburban area during 1967 or 1968 were identified. These nine bond referendums are listed in Table 1. Where two

TABLE 1

LIBRARY BOND REFERENDUMS HELD IN 1967 and 1968 IN CHICAGO SUBURBS HAVING A 1960 POPULATION OF OVER 10,000

Community	Date Held	Pass or Fail
Chicago Heights	2-28-67	P
Des Plaines	8-12-67	F
Des Plaines	3-16-68	F
Glencoe	10-8-68	F
Northbrook	1-31-67	P
Palatine	2-10-68	F
Park Forest	1-13-68	P
Villa Park	4-18-67	F
Villa Park	10-14-67	P

elections were held in the same city, as in Des Plaines and Villa Park, only the more recent referendums were selected for study. Consequently, the final group of referendums selected for case studies numbered seven and had been held in seven communities in the Chicago suburban area. These bond referendums were voted on spanning a period of 21 months, from January 31, 1967, through October 8, 1968. Of the seven bond issues examined, four were approved by the voters, and three were defeated. In Illinois the referendum must be approved by a majority of those voting on the question.[20] For the purpose of this study, a "successful" campaign resulted in a vote in which more "yes" than "no" votes were cast. The outcome of an "unsuccessful" campaign resulted in more "no" than "yes" votes being cast.

Development of the Interview Guide

A somewhat open-ended format was chosen for the interview situation to encourage respondents to talk freely about the campaign. The interview outline (Appendix A) was sent to the interviewee before the interview so that he might have an opportunity to refresh his memory and to organize his response as he wished. The outline also served to keep the focus on those aspects of the campaign most relevant to the study. The interview outline was pretested in LaGrange, Illinois, where a successful library bond referendum had been held in 1966.

The schedule used by the interviewer (Appendix B) included probes to be used when necessary to focus the response of an interviewee. The interviewer's schedule also included one addition introduced in the field. As the field work began, the telephone campaign was presented as a type of personal contact. This technique was included and probed in the same manner as door-to-door canvassing.

The series of questions on opposition to the bond referendum frequently did not elicit the depth of information desired since supporters of the referendum frequently replied that there was no organized opposition. Thus, questions seven and eight were rephrased as: "What reasons were given for opposition, and what activities were engaged in by those who opposed the referendum?" Next, question ten was rephrased to read: "What sort of opposition was anticipated by library bond supporters?" This was followed by question nine, seeking information on the response of bond issue supporters to whatever opposition there was.

The final section of the interviewer's schedule, "EVALUATION OF THE CAMPAIGN," was included to provide an opportunity to approach these factors from another point of view if they had not been touched on earlier in the interview. This section was used infrequently.

It was found that interviewees varied in their ability to recall information about the campaign. Memory of the campaign varied from community to community, as well as from individual to individual. However, it did not appear that the quality and reliability of information provided by interviewees decreased noticeably in campaigns more distant from the time of the interview.

Field Work Procedure

After agreement to participate in the study had been secured through the librarian or board president in each community, names of people who were to be interviewed were obtained and dates were arranged for the investigator to visit the community. The field work was performed during December, 1968, and January, 1969.

Upon arrival in the community, the investigator examined local sources of information about the campaign. The minutes of the library board in each community were examined beginning at least one year before the referendum was held, through that year, and up to the meeting or two after the referendum. Other sources examined at this time varied from community to community, but included building programs, campaign brochures, sample ballots, publicity scrapbooks, and other materials in library files related to the campaign period. A record of the number of votes was obtained from the city or village clerk in each community.

Next, the following people were interviewed in each community: (1) librarian at the time of the campaign, (2) board president at the time of the campaign, and (3) the campaign chairman. If there was a telephone campaign or a door-to-door campaign, a person who was knowledgeable about this activity was also interviewed. Attempts were made to interview at least one opponent of each bond issue. Opponents of the three defeated bond issues were easily identified. At least one opponent was interviewed in each of these communities. These individuals provided useful information about the opposition, its activities, and reasons for its existence.

The investigator found it much more difficult to identify someone who publicly opposed the bond issues which passed. In one community, the investigator encountered strong resistance from the board president to the idea of contacting opponents.

Rather than drop the community from the study, the investigator agreed not to contact any opponents of the bond referendum in that community. In a second community, no opponents were identified by name, and so none were contacted. In each of the remaining two communities, one person was contacted who had publicly expressed serious reservations about the bond issue. These people were asked only about activities of the opposition, and they corroborated what was reported by supporters of the referendum.

References to Chapter I

[1] Guy G. Garrison, "Voting on a Library Bond Issue: Two Elections in Akron, Ohio, 1961 and 1962," Library Quarterly, 33 (July, 1963), 229.

[2] Bernard Berelson, Paul Lazarsfeld, and William McPhee, Voting (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954), pp. 17-18.

[3] See the section on campaign planning in Appendix C for a discussion of the importance of personal contact.

[4] For example, see Leonard B. Archer, Jr., "Running a Bond Issue Campaign," Wisconsin Library Bulletin, 61 (March-April, 1965), 85; Marjorie Lincoln, "The Library Referendum," Illinois Libraries, 49 (November, 1967), 792; Jean Solberg, "The Campaign for a New Main Library Building for La Crosse Public Library," Wisconsin Library Bulletin, 61 (March-April, 1965), 75; and Lester L. Stoffel, *et al*., "Winning the Third Referendum in Oak Park," Illinois Libraries, 45 (September, 1963), 391-392.

[5] See Ruth Gregory, "Referendum and Building Planning for a Medium-Sized Library," (unpublished paper, n.d.), pp. 38 and 53; Lincoln, "Library Referendum," p. 792; Ruth G. Lindahl and William S. Berner, Financing Public Library Expansion ("Research Series," No. 13; Springfield: Illinois State Library, 1968), pp. 12, 20, and 45; and Stoffel, "Winning the Third Referendum," p. 387.

[6] See the section in Appendix C on library referendum campaigns.

[7] Gregory, "Referendum and Building Planning," pp. 38 and 54-56.

[8] See the section in Appendix C on library referendum campaigns.

[9] Archer, "Running a Bond Issue Campaign, p. 83; and Lincoln, "Library Referendum," p. 791. See also the section in Appendix C on library referendum campaigns.

[10] Archer, "Running a Bond Issue Campaign," p. 84.

[11] William Chait, "Preparing for a Library Election," Illinois Libraries, 45 (September, 1963), 403.

[12] Stoffel, "Winning the Third Referendum," p. 387.

[13] See the section in Appendix C on library referendum campaigns.

[14] See the section in Appendix C on library referendum campaigns.

[15] Lindahl and Berner, Financing Public Library Expansion, pp. 47-48.

[16] Guy G. Garrison, "Ten Years of Library Elections in Illinois," Illinois Libraries, 45 (September, 1963), p. 411.

[17] Illinois Education Association, "School Bond and Tax Referenda" (Springfield: The Association, December 1966), p. 11.

[18] For examples of these variations, see Lorraine Hartwick, "Library Election Laws of Eight States," Illinois Libraries, 45 (September, 1963), 416-417.

[19] "Public Libraries," Illinois Libraries, 50 (January, 1968), 20-21.

[20] Illinois Revised Statutes (1967), Chapter 24, Article 8, Section 4-1.

CHAPTER II

DESCRIPTION OF CASES

Descriptive information about the suburbs in which the referendums were held is presented in this chapter, followed by a brief description of the libraries involved and information on each referendum. Findings on the conduct of the campaigns are detailed in the two succeeding chapters.

The Communities

The purpose of this section is to compare the seven suburban communities under study in relation to each other and to all suburbs of Chicago. In the tables, the communities in which successful referendums were held are presented first, followed by communities in which the library bond referendum was defeated.

The population figures indicate the size of the communities (Table 2). The 1965 population estimates were used to indicate population at a time closer to the referendums than 1960 and to provide comparable figures for the suburbs being described. Since the suburbs maintained the same ranking whether the 1960 figures or the 1965 estimates were used, the latter figures were used in later calculations. With an estimated 1965 population of 50,500, Des Plaines was the largest suburb included in the study, while Glencoe, with an estimated 1965 population of 11,000, was the smallest. In both of these communities, the library bond referendum studied was unsuccessful.

Percentage increases in population between 1950 and 1960, and between 1960 and 1965, are presented in Table 3. All of these suburbs experienced marked population growth between 1950 and 1960. This growth was more pronounced in Northbrook, Palatine, Des Plaines, and Villa Park than in the other three suburbs. Although all of the communities continued to grow after 1960, the percentage decreased markedly. Glencoe and Park Forest experienced the lowest growth rates of this group during the early 1960's. The four communities which experienced the greatest increase between 1950 and 1960 continued to experience the highest percentage increases during the early 1960's. The populations of Des Plaines and of Palatine were

TABLE 2

POPULATION OF THE SEVEN SUBURBS

Community	1960 Population	1965 Estimated Population
Successful Campaign		
Chicago Heights	34,331	41,000
Northbrook	11,636	15,500
Park Forest	29,993	32,000
Villa Park	20,391	25,000
Unsuccessful Campaign		
Des Plaines	34,886	50,500
Glencoe	10,472	11,000
Palatine	11,504	18,000

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, U. S. Census of Population: 1960; Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population; Part 15, Illinois (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1963). The 1965 population estimates appear in Rand McNally's Commercial Atlas and Marketing Guide, 1965, pp. 147-155.

increasing at a faster rate than those of the other communities. Northbrook ranked third during the 1960's, dropping from first during the 1950's.

These data suggest the possibility that the increase in population may have affected the outcome of the referendums in Des Plaines and Palatine, perhaps through a lag in citizen perception of the realities of community growth. Interviewees in Palatine suggested that some citizens may not have recognized the community's growth. But these data are adequate only to suggest the possibility.

The seven suburban communities are compared with each other and with all Chicago suburbs on three socioeconomic characteristics in the indices presented in Table 4. These indices were prepared by the Northeastern Illinois Metropolitan Area Planning Commission, using data from the 1960 U. S. Census of Population. The figures for all suburbs represent the entire Chicago suburban area, and the index numbers for the

TABLE 3

POPULATION INCREASE OF THE SEVEN SUBURBS

Community	Percent Increase 1950-1960	Percent Increase 1960-1965
Successful Campaign		
Chicago Heights	39.3	19.4
Northbrook	247.5	33.2
Park Forest	96.7	6.7
Villa Park	131.2	22.6
Unsuccessful Campaign		
Des Plaines	132.7	44.8
Glencoe	50.0	5.0
Palatine	182.0	56.5

Source: The 1950-1960 figures are from U. S. Bureau of the Census, U. S. Census of Population: 1960; Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population; Part 15, Illinois (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1963). The 1960-1965 figures were calculated on the basis of the population figures given in Table 2 above.

communities under study represent the relative position of each community to the other six and to the entire suburban area.

The suburban communities being described exhibited a wide range of family income, level of education, and percentage of the labor force employed as white-collar workers. Glencoe, Northbrook, and Park Forest ranked noticeably higher than the other communities on each of the three indices. Des Plaines, Palatine, and Villa Park ranked slightly above the index for all suburbs. Chicago Heights ranked noticeably below the index figure. These seven communities tended to be inhabited by people of higher family incomes and higher levels of education than the Chicago suburbs as a group. In six of the communities, over half of the adult population had attended school after receiving a high school diploma. Glencoe had one of the highest levels of education in the suburban area.[1] Except for Chicago Heights, the inhabitants of these communities were

TABLE 4

INDICES OF SOCIOECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SEVEN SUBURBS

	Median Family Income 1959	Median School Years Completed-- Persons 25 Years and Over, 1960	Percent Employed as White-Collar Workers, 1960
All Chicago Suburbs			
(1960 Census Figure)	($8,158)	(12.1)	(51.1)
Index Numbers	100	100	100
Successful Campaign			
Chicago Heights	89	84	80
Northbrook	137	113	150
Park Forest	110	112	162
Villa Park	106	101	107
Unsuccessful Campaign			
Des Plaines	106	101	115
Glencoe	247	119	142
Palatine	108	103	117

Source: Northeastern Illinois Metropolitan Area Planning Commission, Suburban Factbook (Chicago: The Commission, March, 1964), Table 9.

more likely to be employed as white-collar workers than inhabitants of the Chicago suburbs in general.

The ages of inhabitants of the seven suburban communities are compared with each other and with all Chicago suburbs in Table 5. Inhabitants of Park Forest were younger than inhabitants of the other communities. Not only did Park Forest exhibit the lowest median age among the seven communities, but it also had the lowest percentage of population aged 65 and over and the highest percentage of inhabitants under 18 years of age. Chicago Heights, with the highest percentage of population aged 65 and over, ranked slightly above the percentage for all suburbs. Judging by the percentage of population under 18 years, Chicago Heights, Des Plaines, and Glencoe had a lower proportion of children than the other communities;

TABLE 5

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF COMMUNITY INHABITANTS

Community	Median Age	Percent Population Under 18 Years	Percent Population 18 to 64 Years	Percent Population 65 Years and Over
All Chicago Suburbs	29.2	37.4	--	7.0
Successful Campaign				
Chicago Heights	27.4	38.3	54.7	7.1
Northbrook	26.1	45.0	51.9	3.1
Park Forest	21.4	48.4	50.0	1.6
Villa Park	26.7	41.3	53.6	5.1
Unsuccessful Campaign				
Des Plaines	29.1	38.9	55.5	5.6
Glencoe	34.7	37.8	55.9	6.3
Palatine	27.0	42.5	52.1	5.3

Source: Figures for all Chicago suburbs are taken from Northeastern Illinois Metropolitan Area Planning Commission, Suburban Factbook (Chicago: The Commission, March, 1964), Table 1. Other figures are taken from U. S. Bureau of the Census, U. S. Census of Population: 1960; Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population; Part 15, Illinois (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963).

these three had approximately the same percentage as all Chicago suburbs. Only Glencoe exhibited a median age higher than the median age of all suburban residents; inhabitants of Glencoe were slightly older than the inhabitants of all Chicago suburbs.

Inhabitants of the seven suburbs were younger than inhabitants of the suburbs as a whole. The median age of the inhabitants of communities in which the library bond referendum failed was slightly higher than the median age of inhabitants of communities in which the bond referendum was successful. No data were collected in this study which would directly test the possible relationship between age of the population and referendum outcome.

Thus, the seven communities in which library bond referendum campaigns were held during 1967 or 1968 ranged in size from about 11,000 to just over 50,000 people. These communities had been increasing in population since 1950 although the increases since 1960 were not so marked as those which occurred between 1950 and 1960. When compared with all suburbs of Chicago, these seven communities exhibited higher levels of income and education. Inhabitants were more likely to be employed as white-collar workers than inhabitants of the Chicago suburbs as a whole. Chicago Heights was an exception to these statements, exhibiting a markedly lower educational level, level of family income, and percentage employed as white-collar workers. The inhabitants of these communities also tended to be younger than inhabitants of Chicago suburbs as a group.

The Libraries

The information presented in Table 6 presents a comparison of certain data for seven libraries for which expanded facilities were sought. This information covered either the fiscal year January, 1967, through December, 1967, or April 1, 1967, through March 30, 1968. Since the purpose of this comparison was to provide a picture of the libraries at the time of the referendum campaigns, this fit in time was judged to be sufficiently accurate.

The number of hours open each week and the number of books per capita held by the library provide an indication of the extent to which library service is available to the community. At the extremes, patrons in Villa Park had access to their library 19 hours less than patrons in Palatine; libraries in the remaining suburbs were open between 62 and 67 hours weekly.

The number of books per capita held by a library indicates, in a general way, the amount of material available to library patrons. The number of books per capita available to patrons of these suburban libraries ranged from a high of 4.3 in Glencoe to a low of 1.1 in Chicago Heights. Park Forest represented the median of this group with one of the unsuccessful and two of the successful campaigns falling below the median.

Although library circulation figures have been criticized frequently in the literature, they are used here to provide a rough indication of the use made of the seven libraries. The

TABLE 6

LIBRARY DATA

Community	Hours Open Per Week	Books Per Capita	Circulation Per Capita	Tax Rate	Total Expenditure Per Capita
Successful Campaign					
Chicago Heights	66[a]	1.14	3.26	.045	$2.42
Northbrook	67	2.32	9.44[a]	.117[a]	5.75
Park Forest	63	1.97[a]	11.54	.12	3.61[a]
Villa Park	52	1.44	5.87	.094	2.02
Unsuccessful Campaign					
Des Plaines	62	1.43	6.16	.081	2.92
Glencoe	66[a]	4.34	11.32	.129	7.13
Palatine	71	2.02	10.39	.173	6.99

[a] Median.

Source: "Statistics of Library Service," Illinois Libraries, 50 (October, 1968), 730-754. The per capita figures were calculated using the 1965 population estimates given in Table 2 above.

gross circulation reported in Illinois Libraries has been converted to per capita circulation to make the figures somewhat comparable. The per capita circulation varied widely among the communities, from a low of 3.3 books per capita in Chicago Heights to a high of over 11 books per capita in Park Forest and Glencoe. The libraries may be ordered in three groups, with Glencoe, Park Forest, Palatine, and Northbrook showing a markedly higher circulation per capita than the other three libraries; the Villa Park and Des Plaines libraries were used somewhat less, and the Chicago Heights library was used noticeably less than the others.

Looking at the per capita circulation from the point of view of whether the referendum campaigns were successful or not, two libraries in communities in which the bond referendum was successful ranked below the median, and one library located in a community in which the referendum was defeated also ranked below the median.

The tax rate and the total expenditure per capita for library purposes suggest in a rough way the level at which the community supports its public library. The expenditure figure upon which the per capita was calculated includes operating, not capital, expenditures. The tax rate for Chicago Heights (.045) was by far the lowest among these libraries. This was a temporary reduction, the rate having been .078 for the previous year,[2] which was closer to that of the other libraries but still lower than any of them. A majority of the libraries were taxing near or above .12, which is the maximum rate allowable in Illinois without a referendum.[3] The expenditures per capita of these seven libraries ranged from a low of $2.42 in Chicago Heights to a high of $7.13 in Glencoe. Two successful and one unsuccessful referendum were held in communities which ranked below the median.

These communities appear to fall into three groups on these two measures of financial support. Glencoe and Palatine, where the referendums were defeated, received the highest level of support. In Northbrook and Park Forest, where the referendums were successful, the libraries receive a slightly lower level of financial support. The support level was much lower in the remaining three communities, Chicago Heights, Des Plaines, and Villa Park. The bond referendums were approved by the voters of Chicago Heights and Villa Park and defeated by voters in Des Plaines.

On the three measures of library activity presented in this section, Glencoe, Northbrook, Palatine, and Park Forest ranked together near the top. Park Forest was open fewer hours each week than the others. Des Plaines and Villa Park ranked near the bottom of the group, with relatively lower expenditures per capita and fewer books per capita. Although its expenditure per capita was low and its figure for books per capita ranked at the bottom of the group, the number of hours weekly that the Chicago Heights Library was open ranked in the middle of this group of seven suburban libraries.

The Referendums

Table 7 provides summary information about each of the referendums which concluded the campaigns being studied. This information was compiled from materials, such as sample ballots, in library files which were examined during the field work.

It will be quickly noted that three of the four bond referendums held during 1968 failed, while all of the bond referendums held during 1967 were successful. Although the

TABLE 7

REFERENDUM DATA

Community	Date Held	Type of Election	Other Library Issues at the Same Election	Purpose of Bond Issue	Amount of Referendum
Successful Campaign					
Chicago Heights	2-28-67	G	none	new building	$ 980,000
Northbrook	1-31-67	S	increase in tax ceiling to 20¢ per $100 assessed val.	new building	900,000
Park Forest	1-13-68	S	none	addition	497,000
Villa Park	10-14-67	S	none	new building	350,000
Unsuccessful Campaign					
Des Plaines	3-16-68	S	none	addition	975,000
Glencoe	10-8-68	S	increase in tax ceiling to 20¢ per $100 assessed val.	addition	485,000
Palatine	2-10-68	S	none	new building	2,288,000

conclusion may be reached that 1968 was a bad year for bond issues, not all library referendums held that year were unsuccessful. Bonds for the Park Forest addition were approved and, later in 1968, voters in Glencoe approved an increase in the library tax rate, while voting down the referendum to issue bonds for a library addition. Perhaps voters were turning increasingly against higher taxes during this period. Other data collected in this study neither support nor reject this hypothesis, primarily because the reaction of voters was not sought.

Only the Chicago Heights referendum was voted on at a general municipal election. The library was the only matter being voted on in the other six communities. These special elections were called solely for the purpose of voting on library referendums. The bond issues in Glencoe and Northbrook were voted on in connection with a proposal to raise the library tax rate ceiling to 20 cents per $100 of assessed valuation, the legal limit in Illinois. Both tax rate proposals were approved by the voters.

Illinois law permits bond issues for construction of a new library building or for an addition to an existing library.[4] Thus the campaigns were directed at bond issues for both new buildings and for additions. Bonds for one of the three additions were approved by voters, and bonds for three of the four new buildings received voter approval.

The amount of each referendum is presented to indicate the range, from a low of $350,000 in Villa Park to a high of $2,288,000 in Palatine. The mean amount of the seven bond proposals is $925,000. The median is $900,000. These amounts--the high, the median, and the low--happen to be for new buildings.

After separating the successful from the unsuccessful referendums, the mean amount of the successful bond issues is $681,750. The mean of the unsuccessful bond proposals, $1,249,333, is substantially higher. Even if the Palatine referendum is excluded, the mean amount of the two remaining unsuccessful proposals, $730,000, is still larger than the mean of the successful bond issues. Measured solely by the amount of the referendum, the unsuccessful referendums were for larger amounts than the successful referendums.

The amount per capita of each bond referendum is presented in Table 8. The new building for Villa Park still represented the least costly structure when viewed in this manner, with the new building in Palatine still the most expensive. While the per capita calculation permits some control for population size, this control is not complete.

TABLE 8

PER CAPITA COST OF BOND REFERENDUMS

Community	Amount of Referendum	1965 Estimated Population	Per Capita Cost
Successful Campaign			
Chicago Heights	$ 980,000	41,000	$ 23.90
Northbrook	900,000	15,500	58.06
Park Forest	497,000	32,000	15.53
Villa Park	350,000	25,000	14.00
Unsuccessful Campaign			
Des Plaines	975,000	50,500	19.31
Glencoe	485,000	11,000	44.09
Palatine	2,288,000	18,000	127.11

It does not take into account the population for which the building was planned. Although the population estimate for Palatine for 1965 was 18,000, the library building was planned for a community of 73,900.[5] While opponents of the referendum challenged this figure during the Palatine campaign, the projection was based on the prediction by professional planning consultants that the population of the village would increase to 73,900 "within the next 15-20 years."[6] Calculated on the basis of this projection, the per capita cost of the Palatine referendum, $30.96, is much closer to that of the other referendums.

In summary, the seven referendums studied were put to the vote between January 31, 1967, and October 8, 1968. The bond issues involved were for amounts ranging from under half a million dollars to over two million dollars. Three of the referendums were for bond issues between $900,000 and $980,000. The referendums included three for additions to existing library buildings and four for new buildings. In four of the seven communities, the library bond issue was the only item being voted on. In two of the remaining communities (Northbrook and Glencoe), the bond issue was combined with a proposal to permit an increase in the library tax. In the one remaining community, Chicago Heights, the bond issue referendum, while the only library-related matter being voted on, was voted on at a general municipal election.

Election Results

Voting results for the seven bond referendums are presented in Table 9. For purposes of comparison, the results of the tax increase referendums in Glencoe and Northbrook are included. The total number of votes cast includes all votes cast for and against the proposition, plus ballots which were spoiled or defective. Spoiled and defective ballots were excluded from the calculation of the percentage of yes votes.

The successful bond issues were approved by substantial margins, while the degree of defeat varied widely. The bond issue was overwhelmingly defeated by Palatine voters, while the bond issue in Des Plaines was defeated by a much smaller margin.

The pattern of voting for the two library issues in Northbrook and Glencoe is also noteworthy. The same number of votes were cast on the tax rate increase as on the bond issue, but while the number of "yes" votes in Northbrook

TABLE 9

REFERENDUM RESULTS

Community	Total Votes Cast	Number Yes	Percent Yes[a]
Successful Campaign			
Chicago Heights	8,170	4,410	61
Northbrook (bond)	1,375	900	66
Northbrook (tax)	1,375	880	64
Park Forest	1,177	759	64
Villa Park	2,159	1,328	64
Unsuccessful Campaign			
Des Plaines	3,530	1,502	43
Glencoe (bond)	1,957	604	31
Glencoe (tax)	1,957	1,006	51
Palatine	3,152	286	9

[a] Calculated on the basis of the total of yes and no rates, excluding spoiled or defective ballots.

varied by 20 on the two referendums, the tax increase in Glencoe received 402 more "yes" votes than the bond issue. The selective voting in Glencoe may well have been due to the recommendation of one opponent of the Glencoe bond issue who recommended defeat of the bond issue but passage of the tax rate increase.

Summary

Of the seven Chicago suburban communities in which referendums were held for library buildings or additions during 1967 or 1968, six exhibited higher levels of family income, years of school completed, and percentage employed as white-collar workers than Chicago suburbs as a whole. Only Chicago Heights ranked below the median for all suburbs on these characteristics. The suburbs in which the referendum campaigns took place cannot, therefore, be considered representative of all Chicago suburbs. They do, however, represent a range from the very wealthy suburb of Glencoe to Chicago Heights, which is an industrial suburb with fewer ties to the central city.

The median age of inhabitants of communities in which the bond referendum was defeated was noticeably higher than the median age of residents of communities in which the bond referendum was successful. When measured on the indices of socioeconomic characteristics, the communities appear to rank in three groups. Glencoe, Northbrook, and Park Forest ranged highest in income, level of education, and percentage employed as white-collar workers. Des Plaines, Palatine, and Villa Park ranked somewhat lower on these indices, yet above the index for all Chicago suburbs. Chicago Heights ranks substantially below the other communities on these indices.

The libraries for which expanded facilities were sought by means of a bond issue were going concerns: they exhibited a wide range of books per capita, circulation per capita, and expenditures per capita. The grouping of the libraries on the various measures of library activity is somewhat different from the grouping found on the indices of socioeconomic characteristics. While Glencoe, Northbrook, and Park Forest still ranked highest, they were joined by Palatine when the library characteristics are examined. Des Plaines and Villa Park ranked near the bottom on the measures of library activity. Chicago Heights, while it ranked at the bottom on the number of books per capita and circulation per capita, was open more hours weekly than three of the other libraries.

Findings with regard to the referendum campaigns in these seven communities will be detailed in the two succeeding chapters. In Chapter III findings related to personal contact in the campaign will be presented. Findings related to campaign variables other than personal contact are presented in Chapter IV.

References to Chapter II

[1] The median number of school years completed for persons aged 25 and over is 14.4 years; see Northeastern Illinois Metropolitan Area Planning Commission, Suburban Factbook (Chicago: The Commission, March, 1964), Table 8.

[2] "Statistical Issue," Illinois Libraries, 49 (October, 1967), 648.

[3] "Library Taxes and Limitations," Illinois Libraries, 50 (January, 1968), 35.

[4] Illinois Revised Statutes (1967), Chapter 81, Article 5, Sections 5-2 and 5-3.

[5] Palatine Public Library, "A Building Program for the Palatine Public Library," June, 1967, p. 5.

[6] Ibid., p. 4.

CHAPTER III

FINDINGS: PERSONAL CONTACT

As defined for this study, personal contact includes four elements which were anticipated to be present to a varying degree in each of the campaigns: (1) efforts to get out the vote, (2) speeches to community groups, (3) neighborhood coffee hours, and (4) public meetings. The data for this section were obtained almost entirely from interviews with supporters of the library bonds. It was hypothesized that each successful campaign would exhibit a greater number of these elements than each unsuccessful campaign.

Efforts to Get Out the Vote

On the basis of the literature, it was hypothesized that efforts to get out the vote would closely resemble the following procedure. The first step would be to identify people likely to be favorable to the referendum. This identification would be based primarily on a house-to-house canvass of the community, during which residents would be called upon by supporters of the bond referendum and presented with literature explaining the bond issue. Referendum supporters would note the names of residents who indicated a disposition to vote "yes," record them by election precinct, and distribute them to poll watchers for use on election day. The poll watchers would check off names of "favorables" as they voted. About midway during the period of voting, the lists would be rushed to telephoners who would contact as many of the remaining favorables as possible, indicating that the library needed their vote. Excuses such as having to remain at home with the children or having no transportation to the polls would be met with an offer to send a car and/or a baby sitter. Other bond referendum supporters would be prepared to chauffeur voters or to baby sit. In this way, library bond supporters could be certain that those who favored the bond issue did vote.

An effort of this nature clearly requires help from a great many people, both for door-to-door canvassing and for the election day follow-up. This procedure is presented as an idealized description. It would be pointless, for example, to contact every resident of the community since many over 21 do not vote.

According to the idealized description of get-out-the-vote efforts, favorable voters would be identified by means of a door-to-door canvass. This method was not used in any of the seven campaigns studied. The reasons given for not using it focused on the amount of manpower needed for such an operation, the difficulty of doing such work during an Illinois winter, and the lack of time in the campaign period to organize and carry out this job. As the field work began, the telephone canvass was revealed as a possible alternative to the door-to-door canvass as a means of identifying favorable voters. Telephone rather than door-to-door contact was used in all of the campaigns.

According to the idealized description, the initial contact should be made some days before the referendum. The strategy adopted in Palatine, Northbrook, and Chicago Heights permitted this. The strategy in Park Forest, Villa Park, Des Plaines, and Glencoe did not permit a follow-up since telephone calls were made beginning on the day before the election.

How, then, did library bond supporters decide that the people being called were favorable? Among the successful campaigns, Northbrook began with voter registration lists, annotating them by indicating library card holders; all registered voters were called. Chicago Heights utilized a directory listing all houses in the city block by block. Names were selected by members of the League of Women Voters who did the actual phoning. In Park Forest, callees were those identified by board members or the librarian as people likely to be favorable. Favorable library card holders were part of this group. The technique used in Villa Park was similar, with greater reliance on library card holders.

Among the unsuccessful campaigns, Palatine used the same strategy that had worked successfully in a tax rate increase referendum approximately two years earlier. Voter registration lists, as in Northbrook, were annotated by indicating those who held library cards. Unlike Northbrook, however, the approach in Palatine was to contact only registered voters who held library cards. Glencoe borrowed the technique used in local school and village referendums in which names to be called were selected from lists of parents who had children in school. It was left to the discretion of the woman making the calls to avoid those she knew would be opposed. Members of the Friends of the Library group were also called. In Des Plaines, several sources were used to obtain names: circulating sheets at meetings to be signed, indicating one was favorable; sheets posted in the library for the same purpose; and lists of registered voters.

Before leaving the methods of identifying favorables, one further element should be described--the identity of those who did the telephoning. Among the four one-call communities, Des Plaines utilized the services of board members and other citizens; Park Forest utilized the services of board members, ex-board members, and some interested citizens; Villa Park secured the services of PTA room mothers and other interested citizens; and Chicago Heights received help from the League of Women Voters and some Lady Lions. Northbrook also secured the services of the League. Glencoe made use of the organized PTA room mothers and also members of the Friends of the Library group. Palatine utilized the services of mothers of children who attended library story hours.

After the potentially favorable voters are identified, the next step in the idealized description is to follow up on these people to be certain that they vote. The follow-up in Northbrook followed the idealized description, with callers who had been specially recruited for this job (League of Women Voters members) receiving lists from poll watchers early in the afternoon and spending the next several hours making calls. Although a similar follow-up was planned as part of the campaign in Palatine, it was given up due to the extremely negative nature of the turnout on election day.

Judging solely on the basis of the method used to identify favorable voters, no one method is uniformly associated with successful campaigns. The method of identifying favorable voters by means of the telephone was used in one successful and in one unsuccessful campaign. One may be tempted to conclude that the one-call approach is superior since it requires less time and manpower. But it is even more dependent on the accuracy of the initial identification of prospective favorable voters than is the two-call approach.

Throughout this description, and made overt by interviewee comments in at least two communities, is the reliance on members of the community (and board members in Park Forest and Villa Park) to identify people who would be likely to vote in favor of the referendum. This reliance is based on the knowledge of the community and its inhabitants by individuals who in some cases have been extremely active in civic affairs and have a wide range of friends and acquaintances in the community. The investigator cannot properly evaluate the validity of this reliance since he does not have deep roots in any one community. Nevertheless, it suggests an interesting point for further examination. This reliance might be related to the strong reliance on securing the support of key officials and leaders of key groups that was an integral part of the campaign strategy in Chicago Heights and Park Forest.

For purposes of the major hypothesis, two campaigns, one successful and the other unsuccessful, should receive credit for having a get-out-the-vote effort which conforms, albeit loosely, to the idealized model. The successful campaign was that held in Northbrook. The unsuccessful campaign was that held in Palatine.

Speeches to Community Groups

Several pieces of information were sought about speeches. Speeches, or in some instances, informal talks, were interpreted to exclude presentations made to official municipal bodies or public meetings, whether the latter were called by the library or not. Speeches were restricted to the community groups, such as local parent-teacher associations, Lions, Kiwanis, Rotary, League of Women Voters, as well as neighborhood groups or homeowner's associations. The three elements of information specifically asked for were: (1) purpose of the speeches, (2) how groups were selected, and (3) the number of speeches given. Because of the open-ended nature of the interviews and the use of printed sources, it was possible to determine who gave the speeches.

Presentations to community groups were a part of all of the campaigns. In Park Forest, however, the situation appeared qualitatively different since these presentations were not formally organized. Board members answered questions and made presentations at meetings of groups of which they were members. This low-keyed informational approach was a dominant characteristic of the Park Forest campaign, if campaign is the proper word. Because of this difference, Park Forest is excluded from the following discussion, unless it is mentioned specifically.

The purpose of formal presentations to groups in the six remaining campaigns was primarily informational. The library's need for additional space was described, with use of visual aids in Des Plaines and Villa Park. The presentation was frequently arranged so that members of the audience were given an opportunity to ask questions, or to raise objections to the project. A secondary purpose of speeches was to secure support for the referendum. This purpose was most strongly manifested in Des Plaines where lists were passed out and members of the audience were asked to sign indicating that they favored the bond issue and would be willing to receive a telephone call reminding them to vote. Since opposition to the site, based on concern over possible destruction of an important outdoor recreation facility, had begun to develop in Northbrook before the campaign actually opened, speeches given during the campaign had the additional function of responding to the opposition; speakers stressed the point that the recreation facility would be preserved. Speeches given during the Chicago Heights campaign served as a preliminary step to asking groups to endorse the bond issue.

Supporters of the bond issue took the initiative in contacting organizations in all of the campaigns except that in Park Forest. Selection was made, generally, from knowledge of the organizations possessed by those leading the campaign, whether board members or citizens. The methods of contact varied from an announcement in the local newspaper in one community to more direct approaches in other communities. Data were not obtained from all campaigns on this point, and so further description is impossible.

The hypothesis at the outset of the study was that more speeches would be given during successful than during unsuccessful campaigns. Obtaining even an approximate number proved to be more difficult than anticipated since the files examined did not include a list of speeches given. Thus interviewees were asked to report the names of organizations at which speeches, or talks, were made. These were begun by using newspaper reports and supplemented by asking interviewees to edit the list. The numbers presented in Table 10 reflect

TABLE 10

NUMBER OF SPEECHES TO COMMUNITY GROUPS

Community	1965 Estimated Population	Number	Number of Speeches/ Resident Ratio
Successful Campaign[a]			
Chicago Heights	41,000	29	1,414
Northbrook	15,500	12	1,292
Villa Park	25,000	12	2,083
Unsuccessful Campaign			
Des Plaines	50,500	25	2,020
Glencoe	11,000	6	1,833
Palatine	18,000	11	1,636

[a] Park Forest was excluded, as noted in the text.

this consensus. The number of speeches given ranged from a high of 29 in the Chicago Heights campaign to a low of six in the Glencoe campaign. Excluding Park Forest, the mean number of speeches given in the successful campaigns was 17 2/3, while the mean number given in the unsuccessful campaigns was 14.

To take account of the differences in population between the communities, a ratio was calculated by dividing the number of speeches into the number of residents in each community. The resulting number gives an indication of the extent of the community covered by the speakers. A large number would indicate less coverage than a low number. When population differences are compensated for in this manner, the successful campaigns appear to have covered the community more completely than the unsuccessful campaigns. The mean of the ratios for the successful campaigns is 1,596, somewhat lower than the mean of the ratios of the unsuccessful campaigns, which is 1,830. If the six campaigns are arrayed above or below the midpoint of the range, two unsuccessful campaigns (Des Plaines and Glencoe) and one successful campaign (Villa Park) rank above the midpoint, indicating low coverage. The remaining unsuccessful campaign (Palatine) and the two remaining successful campaigns (Chicago Heights and Northbrook) rank below the midpoint, indicating high coverage.

Further analysis of the number of speeches rests on the number of suitable groups in the community to which speeches could be given. The investigator received the distinct impression that the number of groups, both in absolute and in relative terms, differs greatly among the communities, but appropriate data were not collected to confirm this impression.

The method of collecting information about speeches permitted classification by the type of person who gave the speeches. Librarians varied in the degree to which they participated in this activity. Generally their role was to provide background information about the library and its need for expansion. In the following analysis, only two types of people are considered--board members and interested citizens (Table 11). The interested citizens included members of the citizens' committees in Chicago Heights, Northbrook, and Des Plaines, and the member of a women's civic group in Villa Park. It can be seen that board members were relied upon to make speeches in all of the campaigns and that sole reliance was placed on board members in three of the seven campaigns. In two of these instances, the referendum was defeated, while in the third, the talks being given were not organized--they came from each board member's involvement in the organization. He spoke if asked, but did not take the initiative. Perhaps this is a reflection of the intensity of the campaign waged--more intensive campaigns would need to broaden their number of speakers by incorporating interested citizens into the speakers' corps.

TABLE 11

TYPE OF PERSON WHO GAVE SPEECHES

Community	Interested Citizens	Board Members
Successful Campaign		
Chicago Heights	x	x
Northbrook	x	x
Park Forest		x
Villa Park	x	x
Unsuccessful Campaign		
Des Plaines	x	x
Glencoe		x
Palatine		x

The classification presented above obscures the role of board members in Des Plaines. Here the interested citizens gave the talks, with board members present to answer questions as needed.

From the foregoing discussion, a range of three types emerges when aligned on the dimension of board involvement. At one extreme is Des Plaines, in which the board members played the role of resource persons. In the second type, the most common, board members shared the speaking with interested citizens. The third type is represented by Park Forest, Glencoe, and Palatine, where the board took the entire speaking load.

Speeches were a part of all of the campaigns. Their purpose was to inform voters of the referendum and to secure support for the bond issue. Speeches reached a greater proportion of the community in Chicago Heights, Northbrook, and

Palatine (indicating a greater degree of personal contact) than in Villa Park, Des Plaines, and Glencoe. Interested citizens, other than board members, gave speeches in four communities: Chicago Heights, Northbrook, Villa Park, and Des Plaines.

Coverage of the community and participation by interested citizens provide some differentiation between successful and unsuccessful campaigns. The successful campaigns in Chicago Heights and Northbrook had both high coverage and participation by interested citizens. The unsuccessful campaign in Palatine exhibited high coverage. Interested citizens gave speeches as part of the successful campaign in Villa Park and the unsuccessful campaign in Des Plaines. For purposes of the major hypothesis regarding personal contact, the following campaigns indicated the greatest potential for personal contact: Chicago Heights, Northbrook, Villa Park, Des Plaines, and Palatine.

Coffee Hours

Gregory describes coffee hours as "neighborhood discussion groups."[1] Later she refers to them as "small neighborhood gatherings." "This quiet little event," she continues, "takes long telephone conversations to initiate the idea, other calls to arrange for discussion leaders, and still more to confirm dates."[2] Personal contact at these small neighborhood meetings would be face-to-face, providing an opportunity for citizens to ask questions of knowledgeable bond issue supporters. From the point of view of the campaign leadership, the coffee hour provides an opportunity either to cover the community or to focus on one area of it.

Information about coffee hours was sought in the interviews with bond referendum supporters. The meaning of the term, coffee hour, as used herein, is an informal meeting, held in a private home, called by bond referendum supporters, to provide an opportunity to sell the idea to their neighbors and to build grass roots support. Specifically, information was sought on how the coffee hours were organized and on whether knowledgeable supporters of the bond issue were supposed to be present or not. It was assumed that coffee hours without the presence of knowledgeable supporters had a greater potential for being merely social gatherings, with a diminished possibility of building support, than did coffee hours with knowledgeable supporters present.

Coffee hours were part of only one of the successful campaigns. At least 20 were held in Northbrook during the three weeks preceding the referendum. They were organized by the

League of Women Voters, which had endorsed the need for a new building, and were publicized through the local newspaper. At least five of these meetings were held in the evening so that men could attend. The remaining were held during the day, with predominantly women attending. Since either a library board member or a member of the citizens' committee was present at all coffee hours, at least one knowledgeable supporter did attend. According to the interviewees, the attitude of the people attending all but one of the coffees was favorable to the library issue.

Coffee hours were considered during planning for one of the other successful campaigns. But one planner who had attended such meetings held for other purposes felt that only favorable voters would attend anyway, and so sponsoring coffee hours would be wasted effort. Reasons given for not holding coffee hours during other campaigns neither confirm nor deny this argument.

Some coffee hours were held in one of the defeated campaigns, and a few may have been held during the period of a second. In the latter case, library supporters felt that coffee hours were not necessary since they were identifying and "getting out" favorable voters by means of the telephone campaign. In neither case did the coffee hours appear to be an integral part of the pro-library campaign.

Clearly, holding coffee hours was not an essential condition for the success of three out of the four successful referendums held in these Chicago suburbs.

Public Meetings

During the interviews, the only restriction placed on the definition of what constituted a public meeting related to the word "public." The meeting must have been open to anyone wishing to attend. Thus, the term was used by interviewees to cover a variety of situations. The three major varieties of public meetings are described below, with an indication of their occurrence as part of the pro-library campaign in each of the seven communities.

In each community, representatives from the library board met at least once with the city or village council. Presentations made to the councils were excluded from the definition of public meetings after the data had been collected. Although at least one presentation was made at a public council meeting in each community, the presentation was necessary because the council must set the date for the referendum.

Gregory has described a second type of public meeting which she suggests as the opening event for the pro-library campaign. The meeting should be planned to provide background information about the library's need for a new building. Representation from "every" organization in the community should be sought. Even municipal officials, especially elected officials, should be invited and urged to attend. Invitations to the meeting should state its purpose frankly.[3]

A third type of public meeting is typified by that held in several of the communities studied. In these instances, an outside group, the League of Women Voters, for example, sponsored a forum to present candidates for local office, as well as referendums being voted upon at the same time.

Two items of information about public meetings were sought from interviewees. First, a description of the meeting was asked for. By this means the interviewer could identify meetings which were borderline in nature, and he could relate each interviewee's remarks about a specific meeting. If there was a public meeting or meetings, the interviewee was asked to describe audience reaction. What was sought here was sufficient detail to conclude whether the audience participated or whether they simply sat and listened. Participation by the audience was felt to be a higher level of personal contact than simply sitting and listening. Audience participation was present in all of the meetings described below.

Public meetings of the second or third type were held during the successful campaigns in Chicago Heights and Villa Park. The meeting in Villa Park was the sort which Gregory describes. This meeting of interested citizens was called by the Friends of the Library and held 16 days before the vote. While this meeting was not necessarily the formal opening of the campaign, part of its purpose was to recruit workers for the campaign and to secure suggestions on how bond issue proponents and supporters ought to proceed. The formation of a speakers' bureau and of a telephone campaign to get out "yes" voters resulted from this meeting. A second meeting held in Villa Park was an open meeting of the League of Women Voters. The meeting in Chicago Heights was one example of a forum sponsored by the League of Women Voters. The library bond issue was represented because the referendum was on the ballot in the forthcoming election. This meeting was held seven days before the election.

Two meetings were held in Northbrook before the election. The earliest was at least nine weeks before the vote. This meeting, or series of meetings, was sponsored by the village government and represented an attempt by village officials to hold meetings in various parts of the community so that citizens could ask questions of their elected officials. The library board was included as an elective body, but few, if any, questions were directed at those representing the library. A second meeting in Northbrook, held between ten and 14 days before the voting, was designed to orient the telephoners. Although interested citizens were welcome, few, if any, attended.

Although it included no public meetings, the campaign in Park Forest did include an open house at the library, held on the Sunday afternoon preceding the vote on the following Saturday. Like public meetings, coffee hours, and some speeches, the open house provided an opportunity for referendum proponents to answer the questions of voters and to build support for the bond issue.

During the three unsuccessful campaigns, public meetings were held in Palatine and Glencoe, but not in Des Plaines. The meeting in Palatine, sponsored by the League of Women Voters, was held as opposition to the library expansion was developing. Although the forum was not scheduled solely for the library issue, it dominated the discussion. This forum was held eleven days before the vote.

The public meeting in Glencoe, like the one in Villa Park, corresponds to the type of meeting described earlier as type two. It was co-sponsored by the library board and the Friends of the Library and was held in the library auditorium ten days before the vote.

According to newspaper reports of the meetings in Glencoe and Palatine, opposition was present in the questions and comments of citizens present. The Glencoe newspaper reported that the meeting "touched off a spirited debate between proponents and opponents of the proposed library addition and tax rate increase."[4]

In terms of the major hypothesis regarding personal contact, only public meetings of the second and third type should qualify because the primary purpose of these meetings was to discuss or provide information about public issues, either referendums or candidates.

Public meetings of the second type were held during the campaigns in Villa Park and Glencoe. Such a meeting can provide a "kick-off" for the campaign, as it did in Villa Park, by securing publicity and providing an opportunity to seek campaign workers from among the citizens who attend. Public meetings of the third type were held during the campaigns in

Chicago Heights and Palatine. This type of meeting provides an opportunity for proponents of the bond issue to explain why it is needed. Both types of meeting permit proponents to gain some sense of community reaction to the bond issue. Opposition to the Palatine bond was evident at the League of Women Voters' forum.

Whether or not a public meeting was held is a poor predictor of a successful campaign outcome. Only two of the four successful campaigns included public meetings, while public meetings were part of two of the three unsuccessful campaigns.

Summary

Presence of the four elements of personal contact in each of the seven bond issue campaigns is shown in Table 12. An "x" indicates that the element was present in the pro-library campaign. Examination of the summary reveals that the four elements were present a total of twelve times in the seven campaigns. The elements were present a total of seven times

TABLE 12

PRESENCE OF PERSONAL CONTACT ELEMENTS

Community	Two-call Phone Campaign	Speeches	Coffee Hours	Public Meetings	Total
Successful Campaign					
Chicago Heights		x		x	2
Northbrook	x	x	x		3
Park Forest					0
Villa Park		x		x	2
Unsuccessful Campaign					
Des Plaines		x			1
Glencoe				x	1
Palatine	x	x		x	3
TOTAL	2	5	1	4	12

in the four successful campaigns, ranging from zero in Park Forest to three in Northbrook. The elements were present a total of five times in the three unsuccessful campaigns, ranging from once in Des Plaines and Glencoe to three times in Palatine.

There is little difference, then, between the successful and unsuccessful campaigns as to the occurrence of these four elements of personal contact. The two-call telephone campaign was present in one successful and in one unsuccessful campaign. Speeches given to community groups exhibited a high degree of coverage in three of the four successful campaigns and in two of the three unsuccessful campaigns. Coffee hours were part of the pro-library campaign in only one community. Public meetings were held during four campaigns, two successful and two unsuccessful. A public meeting called by bond issue proponents was held during one successful and one unsuccessful campaign. A forum was also held during one successful and one unsuccessful campaign.

The hypothesis that these four elements of personal contact would be present in successful campaigns and absent in unsuccessful campaigns is not supported by the experience in these seven Chicago suburbs.

References to Chapter III

[1] Ruth Gregory, "Referendum and Building Planning for a Medium-sized Library," (unpublished paper, n.d.), p. 38.

[2] Ibid., p. 53.

[3] Ibid., pp. 54-56.

[4] Judy Phair, "Library Proposal Debated at Hearing," Glencoe News, September 26, 1968, p. 1.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS: OTHER VARIABLES

The occurrence of elements of personal contact in the seven pro-library bond issue campaigns was detailed in the preceding chapter. Findings related to the remaining variables included in campaign conduct are presented in this chapter. The first of these variables is derived from the recommendation in literature on library referendum campaigns that the campaign be conducted primarily by local citizens.

Campaign Leadership

The suggestion that library referendum campaigns be conducted primarily by groups of citizens implies that the leader of the campaign should be a person who is not a member of the library board. Archer is the only recent writer on library referendums who states specifically that the campaign chairman should be this type of person, when he writes, "the chairman of your campaign committee should be someone with a working knowledge of the library, a citizen of unimpeachable integrity, who is highly respected as a civic leader."[1]

Those people in charge of the seven pro-library campaigns were either interested citizens or presidents of library boards. In two of the three campaigns headed by interested citizens, two people worked as co-chairmen. These were the successful campaigns in Chicago Heights and Northbrook. The unsuccessful Des Plaines campaign was also conducted by a citizens' committee, but headed by one interested citizen as chairman. The four remaining campaigns, two successful and two unsuccessful, were led by the library board acting through its president.

Since successful campaigns were led by library board presidents, it was not essential to success in these cases for the campaign to be led by an interested citizen who was not a member of the library board.

Number of Groups Involved in the Pro-library Campaign

The number of groups which were involved in the pro-library campaign was approached from two directions: the number of endorsements given the bond issue by community groups and the number of groups which actively participated in each pro-library campaign.

Endorsements from community groups were sought with varying degrees of intensity as part of the campaign in all communities except Park Forest. The Park Forest campaign, like that in Glencoe, made use of a barrage of letters to the editor urging passage of the bond issue. These letters appeared in local newspapers shortly before the voting. Information on the number of groups which endorsed each bond issue is given in Table 13. The number was obtained in part from printed sources and in part from interviewees who reported the names of groups which endorsed the bond issue.

Local newspapers editorially endorsed the bond issue in every community but Des Plaines. One Des Plaines newspaper does not carry editorials; the second was neutral on the bond issue. Other groups endorsing the bond issue included civic groups, such as the League of Women Voters, Friends of the Library, PTA Council, the PTA groups in individual schools, Chamber of Commerce, Junior Chamber of Commerce, and the Woman's Club. Endorsements in Chicago Heights were also received from both political parties and the boards of both the local high school and the junior college. Endorsement by the city or village council was excluded from the figures reported in Table 13.

TABLE 13

NUMBER OF ENDORSEMENTS RECEIVED FROM COMMUNITY GROUPS

Community	Number
Successful Campaign	
Chicago Heights	10+
Northbrook	4
Park Forest	--[a]
Villa Park	5
Unsuccessful Campaign	
Des Plaines	some
Glencoe	4
Palatine	3

[a] Endorsements were received from individuals rather than groups.

The number of groups endorsing the bond issue ranged from "some" in Des Plaines to over ten in Chicago Heights. The number of endorsements received during the successful campaigns appears to be slightly larger than the number received during the unsuccessful campaigns. There is some indication that securing support of community groups by means of endorsements is associated with a successful campaign outcome.

During interviews with campaign leaders, and while examining printed sources of information about each campaign, the investigator was made aware of the groups which participated actively in each pro-library campaign. Four types of groups were distinguished: (1) library-related groups in existence before the campaign began (Friends of the Library and the library board), (2) library-related groups which were not formally organized (a group composed of mothers of children who habitually attend story hours in Palatine was the only example encountered), (3) *ad hoc* groups formed for the campaign (citizens' committees and groups formed to make telephone calls), and (4) organized non-library groups which existed before the campaign (including the PTA room mothers' organization, the League of Women Voters, and other civic groups).

The number of each type of group participating in each campaign is indicated in Table 14. Of the 27 groups involved in the seven campaigns, fewer than half (12) were library related. Slightly over half of the groups were not related to the library, and these groups which participated in the pro-library campaigns were divided almost equally between *ad hoc* groups formed specifically for the campaign and pre-existing community groups.

The successful campaigns made use of more *ad hoc* groups and pre-existing community organizations (eleven in four campaigns) than did the unsuccessful campaigns (four in three campaigns). Groups of citizens were involved in varying degrees in all of the campaigns. Slightly more non-library groups participated in the successful campaigns than in the unsuccessful campaigns. As the situation of Des Plaines indicates, simply conducting a campaign through a citizens' committee is not a guarantee of success.

Campaign Length

The length of the referendum campaigns was a difficult piece of information to secure since the campaigns, with one exception, got under way without a specific event to mark the opening. The one exception is Glencoe, where the public

TABLE 14

NUMBER OF GROUPS WORKING ON PRO-LIBRARY CAMPAIGN

Community	Organized Library-Related Groups	Unorganized Library-Related Groups	*ad hoc* Groups	Pre-existing Community Groups	Total
Successful Campaign					
Chicago Heights	2	0	1	1	4
Northbrook	2	0	2	2	6
Park Forest	1	--	1	--	2
Villa Park	1	0	1	3	5
Unsuccessful Campaign					
Des Plaines	1	0	2	0	3
Glencoe	2	0	0	2	4
Palatine	2	1	0	0	3
TOTAL	11	1	7	8	27

meeting, held twelve days before the voting, opened the campaign. Lacking a specific event to mark the opening of each campaign, two approximations have been used to indicate, in a general way, the length of the campaign in each community. This information is presented in Table 15. The first of these approximations involves the number of days which elapsed between the date of the meeting at which the library board voted to seek a referendum and the date of the vote. The second approximation is the length of the "big push" or the length of the intensive effort to explain the library's needs.

The number of days which elapsed between the date of the meeting at which the library board voted to hold a referendum and the date of the vote ranged from 36 in Palatine to 103 in Chicago Heights. Three of the campaigns exhibited an elapsed time of 69 or 70 days.

The lengths of the "big push" or the "intensive campaign" are those given by interviewees; in some instances, one interviewee provided the range, while in other instances the figures represent the combination of estimates provided by more than one person. The figure for Glencoe represents the number of days which elapsed between the public meeting and the voting, as does that for Villa Park. The "big push" to explain the library's needs to the community lasted at least 12 to 14 days and may have lasted upwards of 42 to 45 days. These campaigns followed the general pattern outlined in the literature; that is, they tended to build to a peak of activity in the days immediately preceding the voting.

TABLE 15

CAMPAIGN LENGTH

Community	Days between Board Decision to Seek Referendum and Vote	Length of "Big Push"
Successful Campaign		
Chicago Heights	103	final 14-21 days
Northbrook	70	final 28-30 days
Park Forest	89	final 14 days
Villa Park	57	final 16 days[a]
Unsuccessful Campaign		
Des Plaines	69	final 28-42 days
Glencoe	69	final 12 days[a]
Palatine	36	final 28-45 days

[a] Date of public meeting which is assumed to be the beginning of the "big push" in these communities.

Means Used to Finance the Pro-Library Campaign

There were three sources of funds utilized to finance the pro-bond issue campaigns. These were: (1) library funds, (2) donated services, and (3) money donated by local organizations. Money was necessary to pay for such items as printing of brochures and fact sheets, postage for mailing these items, and advertisements in local newspapers. Costs of the referendum election, such as fees to election judges, rental of polling places, and printing of ballots, are not included in this discussion.

The use of tax money to finance advertising designed to induce voters to act favorably toward a proposed bond issue was treated in Elsenau v. City of Chicago.[2] While the matter is not entirely clear, this case indicates that the use of tax funds to promote a proposed bond issue may be improper. A comment on the use of public funds for informational activities of local government officials suggests the possibility that an unbiased presentation of information on a proposed bond issue might be legal.[3] Because of the problems just raised, it appears useful for a library considering the use of tax funds in connection with a referendum campaign to seek competent legal advice.

The sources used to finance these referendum campaigns illustrate that alternatives to tax funds are available. The sources used, other than library funds, are indicated in Table 16. An "x" indicates that the library used that source of financing. In two of the campaigns, exclusive reliance was placed on services donated by members of the board or by others. In one campaign, reliance was placed on both donated services and a contribution from a local organization. Reliance on contributions from local organizations was the main source of money in four of the campaigns. In all of the four communities, except Northbrook, the only local organization involved was the Friends of the Library. Although the Friends of the Northbrook Public Library did contribute money to the campaign, money was also obtained from other civic organizations.

TABLE 16

MEANS USED TO FINANCE PRO-LIBRARY CAMPAIGNS

Community	Donated Services	Contributions of Local Organization(s)
Successful Campaign		
Chicago Heights	x	x
Northbrook		x
Park Forest	x	
Villa Park		x
Unsuccessful Campaign		
Des Plaines	x	
Glencoe		x
Palatine		x

Local organizations, especially the local Friends of the Library, were the major sources of money to finance the pro-library campaigns. As Table 16 indicates, the means used to finance these seven pro-library campaigns do not differentiate the unsuccessful from the successful campaigns.

Publicity Given to Floor Plans

Writers on recent library bond referendum campaigns have discussed whether or not floor plans of the new building should be publicized during the campaign. As indicated in Table 17, the floor plans were given some publicity in five of the seven campaigns. They were not publicized in two of the successful campaigns. The floor plans were available for public inspection at the library during the two remaining successful campaigns and also in one of the unsuccessful campaigns. The plans were given the widest publicity, by being included in the brochure, in two campaigns, both unsuccessful. From these seven cases, it appears that widespread publicity given to the floor plans was associated with defeat.

TABLE 17

PUBLICITY GIVEN TO FLOOR PLANS

Community	Yes	No	Location of Plans
Successful Campaign			
Chicago Heights		x	not publicized
Northbrook		x	not publicized
Park Forest	x		in library
Villa Park	x		in library
Unsuccessful Campaign			
Des Plaines	x		brochure
Glencoe	x		brochure
Palatine	x		in library

The precise relationship between publicity given the floor plans and the outcome of the campaign deserves further study. This relationship could be viewed as part of a more general approach to the degree of specificity with which proponents present the new building to voters. This degree of specificity might include use of architect's renderings in speeches to community groups or in other ways. The degree of specificity with which the site for the new library is described and the emphasis given to new services which will be provided for in the new building might also be considered as part of this generalized approach.

Use of a Theme or Slogan

When the question was asked if a theme or slogan was used in the pro-library campaign, answers obtained in the same community varied not only with regard to whether or not a theme or slogan was used, but also with regard to what the slogan was. Two categories of themes or slogans were identified. First, those mentioned by interviewees, and second, the use of "Vote Yes" or its equivalent on the brochure distributed in every campaign except those in Park Forest and Villa Park, where a theme or slogan was not used.

Interviewees in Chicago Heights suggested two themes: (1) the yearly cost of the referendum to the taxpayer would be equivalent to the cost of only one hard-cover book and (2) Vote the Pink Ballot. The latter slogan referred to the color of the special ballot for the bond issue proposition. In Northbrook, the theme "A Necessity, Not a Luxury" was used in the brochure, on flyers, and elsewhere. The phrase was borrowed from a report made by the League of Women Voters recommending a new library. One interviewee in Des Plaines reported the theme as being that the library is for everyone in the community. A distinctive architectural feature of the Des Plaines building recurred in campaign publicity and has been used since the campaign. In Glencoe, two themes were reported by interviewees: (1) Support Your Library and (2) Vote "Yes." Themes in the Palatine campaign were: (1) the referendum will mean a tax increase equivalent to the cost of a magazine subscription and (2) A New Public Library--A Necessity for Palatine. The purpose of most of these themes was well stated by one interviewee who said that they present the issue to the voters in capsule form. Use of the architectural feature in Des Plaines publicity would serve only to remind people that the publicity is about the library.

The brochures which were distributed during two of the successful campaigns and all of the unsuccessful campaigns contain what might be termed a theme or slogan. The Northbrook and Glencoe brochures contained the phrase "Vote Yes." The brochure distributed in Chicago Heights contained the injunction to "Vote the Pink Ballot." The Des Plaines brochure read, "Vote on Saturday, March 16, for Library Expansion." The brochure distributed in Palatine, like that in Northbrook, contained a miniature sample ballot with an "X" marked in the "Yes" box, thus providing a visual image for the voter.

Finding a theme or slogan which is not a cliché, and which can serve as a unifying element for a campaign, is a difficult job, according to several interviewees. Attempts to give meaning to the cost of the tax increase that would result if the bond issue were approved, such as was done in Chicago Heights and Palatine, must be handled carefully. Interviewees in at least two other communities suggested that such comparisons do not appeal to the well-educated inhabitants of their communities.

The theme as developed in Palatine illustrates another problem suggested by two people interviewed regarding the Palatine campaign. By equating the tax increase resulting if the bond issue were approved to the cost of a magazine subscription, bond issue proponents were on dangerous ground. The tax increase would amount to a minimum of nine cents per $100 of assessed valuation. On $10,000 of assessed valuation, a frequently used figure, the increase in tax attributed to the library bonds would be $9.00. The price index for U. S. periodicals indicates that the average price for U. S. periodicals in 1968 was $8.65.[4] The average price for general interest periodicals for 1968 was $7.24.[5] To the extent that $10,000 represents the average assessed valuation in Palatine, the price of a magazine subscription might well be less, and noticeably so, than the additional tax attributed to the library bonds.

Having "Vote Yes" or words to that effect on the brochure does not provide a means of differentiating between successful and unsuccessful campaigns. Of the two brochures having "Vote Yes," one was distributed during the successful campaign in Northbrook and the other during the unsuccessful campaign in Glencoe.

While a theme or slogan does not appear to have been essential for success in these campaigns, the two successful campaigns which used slogans appear to have had better slogans than the three unsuccessful campaigns. The themes or slogans used in Des Plaines refer to the library but do not appear to indicate a reason for voting in favor of the bond issue. The slogans used in Glencoe indicate how one should vote, and no more. The comparison of the tax increase to the cost of a magazine subscription used in Palatine misfired.

The phrase, "A New Public Library--A Necessity for Palatine," seems to have the quality needed to serve as a unifying element for campaign publicity. It echoes the slogan used in Northbrook, which, however, had the advantage of having been used in the report of a community group which independently urged expansion of the library. Bond issue proponents could borrow from the reasoning used in this report as to why an expanded library was needed.

The comparison of the tax increase resulting from the bond issue equalling the cost of a hard cover book, used in Chicago Heights, was more reasonable than the comparison used in Palatine. The Chicago Heights bond issue was to result in a tax increase of $5.50 per $10,000 of assessed valuation. The average price for a hard cover book in 1967, the year of the Chicago Heights referendum, was $7.94, over two dollars above the increase attributed to the bonds.[6]

Thus, the slogans or comparisons used in the successful Chicago Heights and Northbrook campaigns appear to be more viable than those used in the remaining campaigns.

Opposition

Several problems were encountered in seeking to talk with opponents of the proposed bond issues. Strong resistance on the part of bond issue supporters to having the investigator talk with opponents was encountered in one community. In a second community, no opponents were identified by name and none were contacted. At least one person who did not actively support the bond issue was interviewed in each of the remaining five communities. These included all of the communities in which the bond issue was defeated. The people who actively opposed the bond issue, or who did not actively support it, corroborated what had been reported about opposition by supporters of the referendum. Information on opposition was also obtained from newspaper articles, letters to the editor, and copies of anti-bond issue publicity. The discussion which follows does not refer to all opposition which might have been present during the pro-bond issue campaigns. Rather, it is restricted to opposition which was somewhat public in nature. The actual extent of opposition, in terms of numbers of people opposing, and total actitivities engaged in, was outside the scope of this study. It is assumed that friends talked with one another during the weeks preceding each vote and attempted to influence each other on the proposed bond issue.

Information was gathered on four aspects of opposition: (1) reasons for opposition, (2) major opponents, (3) activities of opponents, and (4) response of bond issue proponents to the opposition.

Reasons for Opposition

The reasons given for opposition to the bond issues reported here include only the major reasons reported by bond issue proponents or obtained from anti-bond issue publicity. At least one supporter of the bond issue in each community reported that some people opposed the referendum because of a reluctance to vote for higher taxes. While determination of the precise extent of this reason among those who voted against the bond issue was outside the scope of this study, resistance to higher taxes, whatever its extent, influenced the nature of the pro-referendum campaigns. In Villa Park, for example, the amount of the bond issue was reduced after it was defeated in April, 1967, and before it was presented again to the voters in October, 1967.

Other reasons for opposition were given which related specifically to the site of the library. Opposition arose in Northbrook because the site would occupy part of an important outdoor recreation facility. Objections were raised to locating the new Northbrook and Palatine libraries near busy intersections. Opposition to the Des Plaines bond issue for a library addition came from people who wanted neighborhood branches, rather than a larger central library.

The cost of the total project was criticized in both Glencoe and Palatine. Opponents said that the amount to be spent was excessive. The per capita cost of each referendum shows that the Palatine referendum was the most expensive in terms of cost per capita, while the Glencoe bond issue was the third most expensive (see Table 8).

Another reason for opposition which was present in some communities was the objection to use of Federal funds to finance part of the cost of expanding the library. The argument presented was that use of Federal funds would reduce the autonomy of the local institution. All of the communities had been approved for grants of money under the Library Services and Construction Act, contingent on passage of the referendum.

Major Opponents

Opposition to the three defeated bond issues appeared to have a greater degree of organization than did opposition to the four successful bond issues. Major opponents of the bond referendums included local elected officials, businessmen, and citizens.

Opposition in Palatine, while termed "not organized" by both referendum proponents and opponents, was the most nearly organized of that encountered in any campaign. Opposition in Palatine came from the president of one homeowner's association and a local businessman, among other people. Opposition represented a variety of community interests and apparently sprang up in various sections of the village. As various persons or groups realized that others were actively opposed to the bond issue, the opposition began to coalesce. While it appears that not all of the publicly anti-bond issue individuals were part of one central organization, opponents had sufficient organization to collect money and produce flyers urging Palatine residents to vote against the referendum.

Public opposition to the Glencoe bond issue came primarily from one member of the library board. In Des Plaines, the bond issue was opposed in two letters to editors of the local newspapers and in talks given by one alderman.

Opposition manifested during the successful campaigns was less overt than that manifested during the unsuccessful campaigns. Resistance to the proposed site developed about a month before the voting in Northbrook. Village trustees in Park Forest raised questions about the library's need for expansion. There was even less overt or public opposition to the bond issues proposed in Villa Park and Chicago Heights.

Activities of Opponents

Like the previous description of the sorts of people who publicly opposed the bond issue, the following description of activities is limited largely to those known to referendum supporters. Especially in the successful campaigns, this limitation is likely to underestimate the activities of opponents of the bond issues.

If we can assume that supporters of the referendum would know if handbills, brochures, or flyers were distributed by opponents, then in all of the successful campaigns, and one of the unsuccessful campaigns (Des Plaines), no handbills, brochures, or flyers were distributed to a large segment of the community. In the remaining two unsuccessful campaigns, such material was distributed in opposition to the bond issue. In Palatine, at least one flyer was distributed in a shopping newspaper which presumably went to all residences in the village about ten days before the voting. Other flyers were distributed later, and opponents passed out flyers outside the polling places during the bitterly cold election day.

A letter from the dissident library board member was distributed to all residents of Glencoe shortly before the election day. The board member had also expressed reasons for his opposition to the bond issue at meetings of the library board, at a public meeting with village trustees, and at the public meeting sponsored by bond issue supporters. It should be noted that the objections were to the bond issue, which was defeated by the voters, and not to the tax rate increase, which was approved by the voters.

Opposition activities in the Des Plaines campaign included two letters to the editor from local citizens and talks given by one alderman who opposed the bond issue publicly. There may also have been a telephone campaign urging negative voters to cast ballots against the bond issue, but the extent of this campaign was not determined.

Activities of opponents in the four communities in which the bond issue received voter approval appear to have been less intense than those in the three communities in which the bond issue was defeated. Some telephoning was done in one subdivision of Northbrook urging negative voters to vote. Otherwise, activities were limited to questions about the referendum at public meetings, coffee hours, and one letter to the editor about two weeks before the voting in Park Forest. This letter was answered by a member of the library board a week later.

The activities of opponents can be grouped in three categories. The first category, as in Palatine and Glencoe, is characterized by a person or people circulating literature and actively opposing the bond issue. The second category, represented by Des Plaines and Northbrook, may be characterized by no opposition literature but some activity against the bond issue. The third category, represented by Park Forest, Chicago Heights, and Villa Park, is characterized by almost a total absence of public opposition to the referendum. A possible reason for this absence is discussed in the following section.

Response of Bond Issue Proponents to the Opposition

The proponents of the bond issues varied in their response to the opposition. It should be pointed out that the intent of proponents in all of the suburbs was to provide accurate information. Proponents of the Palatine bond issue met with residents and businessmen who opposed the bond issue and spoke to groups to give them information about the need for the building and to justify the cost of the project.

Proponents of the Glencoe bond issue attempted to persuade the dissident board member to alter his views. When his letter was delivered to residents of the village, proponents composed, duplicated, and mailed a response in about 15 hours, so that voters would receive it before election day. They also replied to his letter to the editor with a letter in the same issue of the local newspaper.

The proponents of the Des Plaines bond issue deliberately avoided answering the two unfavorable letters to the editor. A bookmobile was included in the bond issue amount to provide a partial answer to the desire for branch libraries. The response of bond issue proponents in Villa Park, like that in Des Plaines, was determined from experiences in the earlier campaign. While Des Plaines gave publicity to the bookmobile, in Villa Park, the amount of the bond issue was reduced, the League of Women Voters studied the library and recommended a new building, and proponents attempted to get favorable voters to the polls by means of the telephone campaign outlined in Chapter III.

The response of pro-bond referendum campaigners to opposition in Northbrook, Park Forest, and Chicago Heights was to answer objections and to prevent opposition from becoming public. This was accomplished in Chicago Heights through close cooperation with the City Council in the search for a site for the new library. The site had been discussed and debated in the community for several years before the bond issue was proposed. By covering community groups during the campaign and securing endorsements from them, it was felt that the sources of effective opposition would be somewhat diminished.

Campaigners in Northbrook reported that objections to the use of part of the outdoor recreation facility site for the library were answered through speeches given to community organizations. Endorsement of the bond issue by the park board was also secured. The leaders of one group of potential opponents in Park Forest were invited to a meeting about one month before the voting, at which information about the effect of the referendum on the group was presented. Park Forest campaigners reported that as a result of this meeting the leaders of this group remained neutral on the bond issue.

Summary

The campaign conduct variables described in this chapter indicate both similarities and differences between the successful and the unsuccessful campaigns. Perhaps the most noteworthy difference is found in the activities of opponents of the bond issues. The smaller the percentage of "yes" votes, the greater the opposition activity which was found. The three unsuccessful campaigns may be ranked on the basis of the percentage of yes votes (see Table 9). Des Plaines received the highest percentage of yes votes, followed by Glencoe, and then Palatine. This ranking exhibits a direct relationship to the activity of the opposition. Opponents were most active in Palatine, less active in Glencoe, and least active in Des Plaines. But opposition was encountered by proponents of the bond issue in Northbrook. In Northbrook the opposition appears to have been answered more completely during the campaign than in Des Plaines.

Reasons for opposition included reluctance of citizens to vote for higher taxes, objections to the site of the library, and objections to the cost of the project. Opponents included local citizens, businessmen, and elected officials. The response of bond issue proponents to the opposition ranged from not answering the opposition directly to answering opposition arguments point by point and inviting opponents to meetings to discuss the reasons for opposition. Proponents in both Des Plaines and Villa Park made changes in their second campaign based on objections raised during the first campaign. Treatment of opposition and the level of opposition activity exhibited in these seven campaigns suggests that increased opposition activity results in failure of the bond issue, especially if opposition arguments are not answered during the campaign.

The information on opposition gathered in this study suggests that answering opposition as it arises is associated with success. This association deserves further investigation. The relationship between opposition and defeat of bond issues should also be investigated further. It appears possible that the association between opposition and defeat may lie in public opposition by any citizen of importance providing a great many people with a reason for voting "no."

Interested citizens led two of the successful pro-library campaigns and one of the unsuccessful campaigns. Two successful and two unsuccessful campaigns were led by the library board, acting through its president. Endorsement of the bond issue was sought from community groups in six of the campaigns. There were slightly more endorsements in the successful campaigns than in the unsuccessful campaigns. More non-library groups participated in the successful pro-library campaigns than in the unsuccessful pro-library campaigns.

Length of the campaigns ranged widely. The "big push" lasted from about two weeks to about six weeks. The chief source of campaign financing was found to be donations of money from community organizations, primarily from the Friends of the Library. Donated services were also an important source of support for campaign activities.

Floor plans were not publicized during two of the successful campaigns. They were available at the library for inspection in the two remaining successful campaigns and also in one unsuccessful campaign. Floor plans were included in the brochure distributed in two unsuccessful campaigns. Of the brochures distributed during five campaigns, four brochures indicated the reader should vote for the bond issue. These were the brochures distributed as part of all of the unsuccessful campaigns and as part of the successful campaign in Northbrook. The brochure used in Chicago Heights simply urged readers to vote on the special ballot containing the library bond proposition.

References to Chapter IV

[1] Leonard B. Archer, Jr., "Running a Bond Issue Campaign," Wisconsin Library Bulletin, 61 (March-April, 1965), 84.

[2] Elsenau v. City of Chicago, 334 Illinois 78 (1929).

[3] "Public Funds and the Informational Activities of State and Local Officials," The University of Chicago Law Review, 21 (Spring, 1954), 476.

[4] "Price Indexes for 1968; U. S. Periodicals and Serial Services," Library Journal, 93 (July, 1968), 2622.

[5] Ibid.

[6] "Index of Prices of Selected Hardcover Books, by Category, 1957-59 through 1967," Publishers' Weekly, 193 (January 29, 1968), 51.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The campaigns waged before voting on library bonds in seven suburbs of Chicago have been presented in the previous chapters. These campaigns have been described along selected dimensions which, taken together, make up what has been termed the conduct of the campaign. After summarizing the findings of this study, conclusions drawn from these findings will be presented in relation to the assumptions and limitations under which the study was carried out. Suggestions for further research into library referendums will also be presented.

Summary

The seven bond issues for new library buildings or for additions to the library analyzed in this study were held in growing suburbs of Chicago during 1967 and 1968. Populations of the communities ranged from approximately 11,000 to slightly over 50,000. Inhabitants of these suburbs exhibit a higher level of education than inhabitants of Chicago suburbs taken as a group. They are also more likely to be employed as white-collar workers than are inhabitants of other suburbs and tend to be younger than inhabitants of the suburbs as a group.

The libraries which the bond issues were to improve exhibited a wide range of use. Book circulation ranged from a low of 3.3 to over 11 books per capita. Financial support also varied; per capita expenditures ranged from under $3 to over $7.

All but one of the referendums were held at special elections. Those approved by the voters passed by comfortable margins, receiving between 61 and 66 percent of the total yes and no votes. Those bond issues defeated by the voters exhibited a wider range. The outcome of one unsuccessful campaign was a comparatively narrow defeat; the bond issue received 43 percent of the total yes and no votes. The remaining two bond issues were defeated by much more substantial margins, receiving 31 percent of the total yes and no votes in one community and only 9 percent in the other.

Judging solely by the amount of the proposed bond issue, the successful bond issues were for smaller amounts than the bond issues defeated by the voters.

Get-out-the vote efforts using the telephone to contact voters were part of all seven campaigns. In only two campaigns, one successful and one unsuccessful, was the initial identification of favorable voters made using a telephone call. Other methods of identifying favorable voters were used in the remaining campaigns, the usual method being identification by bond issue proponents of local residents who would be likely to favor the bond issue. These proponents were frequently members of the library board, and in several cases they were people who participated in numerous community activities and, thus, drew on their knowledge of residents to decide who was likely to favor the bond issue and who was not. Use was made in one unsuccessful campaign of a different method of identification of people who favored the bond issue: people were asked to sign their names indicating they favored the bond issue and would like to receive a reminder to vote.

Speeches by referendum proponents to community groups were part of all seven campaigns. In one community the approach taken was to explain the need for the bond issue only if asked; there was no organized speakers' bureau, but members of groups talked informally, if asked. A greater potential for personal contact appeared present in five of the six remaining campaigns. Fewer speeches were given during the campaign in Glencoe than in the other campaigns, and they reached a smaller proportion of the community.

Coffee hours were part of only one of the seven campaigns, and that was a successful one.

Public meetings which took place during the campaign were found to be of three general types. First, all of the library boards met at least once in a public session with the city council or the village trustees. The second type of meeting, called by proponents to discuss the bond issue, was held in two communities, one in which the campaign was successful and one in which it was not. The third type of public meeting was a public forum sponsored by the League of Women Voters to present candidates and issues which voters would be deciding upon; such forums were held during the course of two campaigns, one in which the bond issue was successful and one in which it was not.

The campaigns were led by either library board presidents (as in four campaigns) or interested citizens selected for the job (three campaigns). Two successful campaigns were led by the board president and two were led by interested citizens. Two of the unsuccessful campaigns were led by board presidents and one by an interested citizen.

Endorsements were sought from community groups in all of the communities except Park Forest. With the successful campaigns receiving slightly more endorsements than the unsuccessful campaigns, there is some indication that securing community support through endorsements is associated with a successful campaign outcome.

The pro-library campaigns involved manpower drawn from several sources. The library board participated in all of the campaigns, either carrying on the bulk of the campaign (as in Palatine and Park Forest) or sharing campaign activities with other groups (as in Northbrook, Chicago Heights, and Villa Park). Groups were formed specifically to help the library in all of the successful campaigns and in one of the unsuccessful campaigns. These groups included citizens' committees which led the successful campaigns in Chicago Heights and Northbrook and the unsuccessful campaign in Des Plaines. The remaining ad hoc groups were formed to carry out telephone campaigns. The use of community groups not related to the library and in existence before the campaign ranged from use of no such groups in one successful campaign and two unsuccessful campaigns to use of three such groups in Villa Park. In this group of seven campaigns, the successful campaigns made use of noticeably more non-library groups than did the unsuccessful campaigns. There is less difference when only the library-related groups are considered. The four successful campaigns utilized the services of six such groups, while the three unsuccessful campaigns utilized the services of the same number.

Measuring the length of the campaign from the date at which the board voted to seek a referendum to the date of the vote provides an indication of campaign length. The time ranged from 36 days in Palatine to 103 days in Chicago Heights. The "big push" lasted a shorter period of time, ranging from about two weeks to possibly six weeks.

Paying the expenses of the campaign, such as for posters, brochures, postage, and the like, raises the question of the legality of using library funds for these expenses. A major source of money to finance campaign activities was contributions from community organizations, primarily the Friends of the Library.

The experience of these seven campaigns suggests that widespread publicity given to floor plans was associated with bond issues defeated by the voters.

Having a theme or slogan was not essential for success in the seven campaigns since only two of the four successful campaigns had a theme or slogan. The themes or slogans used in the successful campaigns appeared to be more viable than those used in the unsuccessful campaigns.

Public opposition to the bond issue appears to be an extremely important factor affecting the outcome of the campaign. Reasons for opposition to the bond issue included the resistance of some voters to higher taxes, objections to the site, and concern that the cost of the total project was excessive. People who publicly opposed the bond issues included elected local officials, businessmen, and local citizens.

The public activities of bond issue opponents can be grouped into three categories. The first category (represented by Palatine and Glencoe) is characterized by opposition which circulates printed material opposing the bond issue, in addition to other activities such as letters to the editor or speaking publicly against the proposition. The second category (represented by Des Plaines and Northbrook) may be characterized by a lack of opposition literature, but some activity in opposition to the bond issue. The third category (represented by Chicago Heights, Park Forest, and Villa Park) is characterized by an almost total absence of public opposition to the referendum. The smaller the percentage of "yes" votes, the greater the level of opposition activity which was found. The opposition activity in Des Plaines and Northbrook differed in that opposition in Northbrook developed several weeks before the bond issue was voted on, and then was answered by bond issue proponents. Opposition in Des Plaines maintained more or less the same level throughout the campaign, with fewer, less direct attempts to answer the opposition.

Assumptions and Limitations

The major assumption underlying this study is that the several bond issues were equally deserving of passage. Stated another way, it was assumed that the bond issues presented to the voters were for necessary and beneficial improvements. It is conceivable that some were more necessary than others. For example, the Chicago Heights library was built in 1902, while the Des Plaines library was built in 1958. It is also assumed that the year in which the referendum was held made no difference in the outcome.

Conclusions drawn from the findings of this study are subject to several limitations. Perhaps the most important is that the findings apply only to the seven campaigns studied. It is quite possible that the campaigns investigated in this report are similar to other library bond referendum campaigns, but such a conclusion does not necessarily follow because of the manner in which the campaigns were selected. The referendum campaigns took place in one state, Illinois, during one period of time, 1967 and 1968.

If voters have indeed become more reluctant to increase their taxes, perhaps a campaign conducted after 1968 would necessarily be different in some aspects from those described here in order to secure passage of library bond issues.

Since the campaigns took place in the Chicago suburban area, further investigation might reveal that there are differences between the techniques which are useful in suburban communities and those useful in communities which are themselves centers of a metropolitan area.

All elements of the campaign were not studied in this investigation. For example, the use of radio and television and the use of posters were not treated.

Conclusions

Comparisons of successful and unsuccessful campaigns have revealed several factors which discriminate between successful and unsuccessful library bond issue campaigns. It was found that the unsuccessful referendums were for larger amounts of money than the successful referendums. But as described in Chapter II, much of this difference disappears when the amount of the referendum is calculated on a per capita basis. It was also found that the successful campaigns were those in which speeches to community groups exhibited a high degree of coverage of the community. The successful campaigns tended to receive a slightly higher number of endorsements from community groups than did the unsuccessful campaigns. The successful campaigns included participation by a greater number of non-library groups than did the unsuccessful campaigns. From the experience of these seven campaigns, it appears that widespread publicity given to floor plans of the proposed library results in an unsuccessful campaign. The three unsuccessful campaigns met with a greater degree of opposition than did the four successful campaigns.

The experience of these seven Chicago suburbs suggests that it is necessary for proponents of the library bond issue to neutralize opposition which develops, if not prevent opposition from developing. Opposition appears to have been overcome in Northbrook by responding to opposition arguments during the pro-library campaign. Bond issue proponents in Park Forest met with a group of potential opponents and were able to secure a promise of neutrality on the bond issue proposal. Proponents in Palatine also met with opponents of the bond issue, but in this community the opponents continued to oppose the bond issue. Proponents of the bond issue in Chicago Heights secured endorsements from community organizations in an effort to remove potential sources of opposition. An opponent would then have to dissent, it was suggested, from the position taken by a group or groups of which he was a member.

It was hypothesized at the outset of the study that four elements of personal contact would be present in successful campaigns and absent in unsuccessful campaigns. This hypothesis received little support from the experience of the seven campaigns which were studied. Finding little support for this hypothesis does not necessarily mean that personal contact is unrelated to the outcome of the campaign, but rather that other factors may be at least as important. One such factor, suggested by the findings of this study, is the level of opposition encountered during the campaign. Palatine, the community having the greatest number of personal contact elements present in any of the unsuccessful campaigns, also had the greatest degree of opposition. Northbrook, the community in which the successful campaign had the most personal contact elements of any of the successful campaigns, had much less opposition. The opposition in Northbrook developed far enough before the date of voting on the referendum so that bond issue proponents had time to respond.

It appears that a high degree of citizen involvement in the pro-library campaign is associated with a successful campaign outcome. Data relating to five aspects of citizen involvement are summarized in Table 18, which is compiled from the text and tables presented earlier. Examination of the table indicates that citizens who were neither on the library staff nor the library board made telephone calls in all of the telephone campaigns. Thus, each campaign had this minimum of citizen involvement. The campaign was led by a citizens' committee in three cases--the successful

TABLE 18

CITIZEN INVOLVEMENT

Community	Citizens Partici-pated in Telephoning	Campaign Led by Citizens' Committee	Citizens Partici-pated in Giving Speeches	No. of Endorse-ments from Community Groups	No. of Non-Library Groups Participating in Pro-library Campaign
Successful Campaign					
Chicago Heights	yes	yes	yes	10+	2
Northbrook	yes	yes	yes	4	4
Park Forest	yes	no	---	---	1
Villa Park	yes	no	yes	5	4
Unsuccessful Campaign					
Des Plaines	yes	yes	yes	some	2
Glencoe	yes	no	no	4	2
Palatine	yes	no	no	3	0

campaigns in Chicago Heights and Northbrook and the unsuccessful campaign in Des Plaines. In these three campaigns, interested citizens participated in giving speeches. Interested citizens also participated in this activity in Villa Park. The Northbrook and Villa Park campaigns received help from the largest number of non-library groups. The number of endorsements from community groups appears to have been higher in Chicago Heights and Villa Park than in the remaining cases.

On these five indicators of citizen involvement in the pro-library campaign (Table 18), there appear to be three levels of involvement. The highest level of involvement is exhibited by the three successful campaigns held in Chicago Heights, Northbrook, and Villa Park. The unsuccessful campaign held in Des Plaines ranks slightly below the three successful campaigns. The remaining three campaigns, the successful campaign held in Park Forest, and the unsuccessful campaigns held in Glencoe and Palatine, exhibit the lowest level of citizen involvement in the campaign. If, however, the Park Forest campaign is considered as qualitatively different from the other six campaigns, and is removed from the comparison, then, in the remaining six campaigns, a high level of citizen involvement in the pro-library campaign is associated with a successful campaign outcome. The reasons for excluding the campaign held in Park Forest from the comparison of citizen involvement are as follows: (1) formal speeches were not a part of the campaign, and (2) endorsements were not sought from community groups, but rather from individuals.

The differences between the Park Forest campaign and the other campaigns are of interest because they reveal a difference in campaign strategy. This difference is discussed by Gregory:

> There are two schools of thought among library-minded citizens and Friends about the type of campaign which should be conducted for a new library building in a tax-conscious community. One stands for a quiet campaign designed to get out the known favorable vote at a special election. The other believes in a full-scale campaign utilizing every available channel to tell the library story. Individuals of this school even want to go so far as to use some of the gadgets of the political field including campaign buttons of the "I Will Vote for the New Library" variety.[1]

The Park Forest campaign was designed to get out the known favorable voters by means of the telephone campaign. The Northbrook campaign, also successful, included getting out known favorable voters by means of a telephone campaign. Both bond issues were voted on at special elections.

But there were a number of differences in these two campaigns, too. The campaign in Northbrook included a much greater degree of citizen participation than did the campaign in Park Forest. The Northbrook campaign was led by a citizens' committee and included a program of speeches before community groups. The Park Forest campaign was run by the library board and did not include speeches to community groups. Virtually every resident of Northbrook received a special brochure describing the library's need and urging support of the bond issue. There was no special brochure as part of the Park Forest campaign. While the Park Forest campaign was clearly a "quiet" one, the Northbrook campaign comes closer to utilizing every available channel to present the need for library expansion to the community.

Suggestions for Further Research

Several avenues for further investigation of library referendum campaigns have suggested themselves during this study. One of these is the examination of referendum campaigns as they are taking place. If campaigns can be identified far enough in advance, it might also be possible to make use of interviews with residents to determine the impact of the campaign on them and to gain insight into factors which determine their voting decisions.

The involvement of interested citizens in library referendum campaigns deserves further examination. A hypothesis for such an investigation might be that a high degree of participation by interested citizens in the pre-referendum pro-library campaign will result in voter approval of the referendum.

Because of the variations among state laws regarding library referendums, the possibility of comparing campaigns conducted in different states suggests itself. Perhaps if the margin required for approval is greater than a majority, the campaign will be different.

An implication of this study, that successful and unsuccessful campaigns are similar when viewed from the perspective of bond issue proponents, should also be examined systematically.

Examination of the purpose of the campaign, as stated by proponents, might be of value. Since information on the purpose of the campaign was not sought systematically in this study, it was not obtained from every interviewee in every campaign. It appeared to the investigator that two purposes were frequently thought of. First was that the purpose of the campaign was to provide information about the library's need to voters in the community; thus, the campaign might be entirely informational. A second purpose indicates a more aggressive approach in that proponents feel that the purpose of the campaign also includes mustering of support for the bond issue in terms of people who are likely to vote for its passage. In this sort of campaign, the information-dissemination function may be of secondary importance.

Various methods used to identify favorable voters might well be examined to determine their reliability under varying conditions. In connection with methods of identifying favorable voters, it might be noted that contacting potential voters and asking their voting intention seemed dangerous to a number of people. These people, not necessarily associated with the referendum campaigns, felt that such a contact might turn potentially favorable voters away from supporting the library bond issue. If true, the finding would be useful not only to librarians, but also to politicians planning campaigns for public office.

A desire to get out favorable voters appears to be an extremely important prerequisite of a successful campaign outcome. Lack of this desire would appear to be related to a concern to merely inform voters, letting voters make up their own minds. While this may be a noble ideal, the passive approach of simply informing the public of the library's need isn't necessarily getting "yes" votes to the polls on election day.

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW OUTLINE

LIBRARY BOND REFERENDUM CAMPAIGN STUDY INTERVIEW OUTLINE

BACKGROUND

1. Please describe any political activities you have engaged in within the past ten years or so, such as contributing money to political parties, working on behalf of candidates, or working on local referendum campaigns.
    a) What elective public offices have you sought?
    b) What public offices have you held?

PRO-LIBRARY BOND REFERENDUM CAMPAIGN

2. Please describe how the people who worked on the pro-library bond campaign were brought together.
    a) Who planned the campaign?
    b) When did planning of the campaign begin?
    c) How was the campaign financed?

3. Please describe any efforts made to identify people who would be likely to vote in favor of the bond issue.
    a) Indicate any efforts made to be certain that these potential "yes" voters did cast ballots.

4. Please describe efforts made during the campaign to talk with individual voters to explain why they should vote in favor of the library bond issue.

5. The following are activities that might be used in a referendum campaign. Please respond with regard to the pro-library bond campaign.
    a) Door-to-door canvassing.
    If used, please describe how canvassers were recruited and trained, their duties, and the extent of the community canvassed.

b) Speeches to community groups.
   If used, please describe their purpose, and how the groups were selected.

c) Coffee hours.
   If used, please describe how they were organized.

d) Campaign theme or slogan.
   If used, please describe its purpose in the campaign.

e) Public meetings.
   If used, what sort of audience participation was there?

f) Endorsements.
   If used, what groups endorsed the bond issue?

OPPOSITION

6. Please indicate the people, or groups, who opposed the bond issue, and the position they hold in the community.

7. What were their reasons for opposition?

8. What were their activities in opposition?

9. Please indicate the response of library bond supporters to the opposition.

10. Was opposition from these people, or groups, anticipated by library bond supporters?

ELECTION DAY ACTIVITIES

11. Please describe special election day activities of:
    a) library bond opponents.
    b) library bond supporters.

EVALUATION OF THE CAMPAIGN

12. In your opinion, what was the effect of each of the following factors on the outcome of the bond issue referendum?
    a) Turnout at the polls.
    b) The campaign waged by library bond supporters.
    c) The campaign waged by library bond opponents.
    d) Citizen opposition to higher taxes.
    e) Condition of the library building.
    f) Site of the old, or of the proposed, library building.
    g) Other issues voted on at the same election.
    h) Other factors not mentioned above.

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEWER'S SCHEDULE

LIBRARY BOND REFERENDUM CAMPAIGN STUDY INTERVIEWER'S SCHEDULE

BACKGROUND

1. Please describe any political activities you have engaged in within the past ten years or so, such as contributing money to political parties, working on behalf of candidates, or working on local referendum campaigns.
    - a) What elective public offices have you sought?
    - b) What public offices have you held?
        - PROBES:
            - contributed money?
            - worked on political campaigns (national, state, local)?
    - c) When did you move to the community?

PRO-LIBRARY BOND REFERENDUM CAMPAIGN

2. Please describe how the people who worked on the pro-library bond campaign were brought together.
    - a) Who planned the campaign?
    - b) When did planning of the campaign begin?
        - PROBES:
            - Was the campaign--bd. run vs. libn.-bd. run vs. citizens comm. run?
            - When did the campaign open?
            - What guidance did planners receive? (from whom?)
    - c) How was the campaign financed?

3. Describe any efforts made to identify people who would be likely to vote in favor of the bond issue.
    - a) Indicate any efforts made to be certain that these potential "yes" voters did cast ballots.

4. Describe efforts made during the campaign to talk with individual voters to explain the library bond issue.

   PROBES:

   What was the purpose of each effort? (If categories are needed, use those in question 5).

5. The following are activities that might be used in a referendum campaign. Please respond with regard to the pro-library bond campaign.

   a) Door-to-door canvassing.
   If used, please describe how canvassers were recruited and trained, their duties, and the extent of the community canvassed.

   b) Speeches to community groups.
   If used, please describe their purpose, and how the groups were selected.

      PROBE:

      How many were given?

   c) Coffee hours.
   If used, please describe how they were organized.

      PROBE:

      Were library supporters present at all coffee hours to answer questions?

   d) Campaign theme or slogan.
   If used, please describe its purpose in the campaign.

   e) Public meetings.
   If used, what sort of audience participation was there?

   f) Endorsements.
   If used, what groups endorsed the bond issue?

   g) Telephone campaign.
   If used, please describe how callers were recruited and trained, their duties, and the extent of the community called.

      PROBE:

      How were people to be called selected?

   GENERAL PROBE FOR QUESTION 5:

   If activity was not used, what consideration was given to using it?

OPPOSITION

6. Please indicate the people, or groups, who opposed the bond issue, and the position they hold in the community.

   PROBE:

   Was the opposition organized?
   If so, who were its leaders?

7. What were the opponent's reasons for opposition?

8. What were their activities in opposition?

9. Please indicate the response of library bond supporters to the opposition.
   PROBE:
   Neutralize it? If so, how?

10. Was opposition from these people, or groups, anticipated by library bond supporters?
    PROBE:
    If not, why not?
    If so, what was done as a result?

ELECTION DAY ACTIVITIES

11. Please describe special election day activities of:
    a) library bond opponents.
    b) library bond supporters.

EVALUATION OF THE CAMPAIGN

12. In your opinion, what was the effect of each of the following factors on the outcome of the bond issue referendum?
    a) Turnout of voters at the polls.
    b) The campaign waged by library bond supporters.
    c) The campaign waged by library bond opponents.
    d) Citizen opposition to higher taxes.
    e) Condition of the library building.
    f) Site of the old, or of the proposed, library building.
    g) Other issues voted on at the same election.
    h) Other factors not mentioned above.
    PROBE:
    What leads you to this conclusion?

APPENDIX C

PLANNING LIBRARY REFERENDUM CAMPAIGNS: A SURVEY OF RECENT LITERATURE

This survey of the recent literature bearing on the problem of planning a library referendum campaign is organized into two parts: a summary of the important literature and a classified bibliography. In the first part, the most important literature is summarized, indicating its contribution to planning a campaign. Recent literature dealing with library referendums is discussed first, followed by a summary of works on school referendums, voting behavior, and campaign planning. Material published outside library science is included to provide background for understanding why various techniques have been used in library campaigns. The second part of this survey consists of a classified bibliography, which includes some additional items not summarized in the first part. Since two earlier surveys of the literature related to library elections are available, this report deals primarily with material published from 1962 through 1968.

For ease in understanding the literature, and as a framework for discussing it, three phases of a referendum campaign which follow each other in time should be kept in mind. After it has been recognized that the library needs additional money, obtainable through a referendum, the first phase--planning of the referendum campaign--takes place. The second phase--conduct of the campaign--involves carrying out the plan developed earlier. The third phase--outcome of the campaign--takes place at the end of the campaign, and begins with election day. The outcome need not be limited to whether or not the referendum was approved by the voters since it can also include the effects on the library involved.

A distinction between terms should also be kept in mind. As used in this paper, "referendum" and "election" are not synonymous. "Election" is the broader term, and includes "referendum" as a specific type. The term "referendum" is used to refer to a type of election in which voters express a preference for or against a specific course of action given on the ballot. Thus voting on whether or not a governmental body should flouridate the water supply or should issue bonds to build a library or should levy a specific tax are examples of referendums.

Literature Surveys

Garrison's survey of the literature dealing with library referendums covers material published before 1963 (2).* The September, 1963, issue of Illinois Libraries contains several other articles useful to anyone planning a referendum campaign (7, 10, 19). Garrison's bibliography builds on an earlier annotated bibliography of reports on library bond issues which appeared in News Notes of California Libraries in 1955 (1).

In addition to discussing reports of library referendums, Garrison discusses pertinent research from library science and related disciplines. He includes a discussion of research on school referendums, indicating how librarians can make use of research findings in this area. His bibliography also includes citations to material on local government and the electoral process written by political scientists and sociologists.

Duane Lockard's textbook (3) on state and local government is useful as a starting point for the study of politics in a specific city or state. Lockard groups citations in his bibliography by state and city.

Library Referendum Campaigns

Even though library referendums are a small part of all elections, they are of crucial importance to the specific library involved. The kind of referendum with which the planner is usually concerned involves money to increase the level of operating expenditure or money to pay for a bond issue to finance construction. Since local funds from the area served by a public library still provide the majority of its financial support, the need for library financial referendums in Illinois and elsewhere will continue to exist, despite the emergence of state and Federal aid as supplemental sources of public library support.

Although data about library referendums is not collected centrally for the nation, two recent articles show that library referendums do sometimes fail. In the April, 1964, elections in Missouri, for instance, one out of twelve library referendums failed (15). A more detailed analysis of library referendums in Illinois reveals that 26 percent of the tax rate increases and bond issues submitted over a ten-year period failed (19). This analysis also revealed that bond issues which did not pass on the first attempt were very likely to pass if a second attempt was made.

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*Numbers in parentheses refer to entries in the bibliography.

Much of the literature dealing with library referendum campaigns reports specific campaigns--generally successful ones. The authors of these reports base their explanations for what constitutes success on their own experiences, sometimes limited to one campaign. The implication, however, is that the methods they present did help in achieving success.

Planners of library referendum campaigns are advised by three writers on library campaigns (4, 8, 16) to coordinate the work of various groups. The work of the coordinator, as reported by Solberg (16), includes clearing the speeches of volunteers to be certain the speaker is prepared); following up to find out questions voters are asking (so that later speakers can be kept informed); and being certain that committees, the library board, and other workers are carrying out their assigned jobs.

When planning a campaign, attention should also be paid to the manner in which earlier referendums were handled in the community. These might include library referendums, or other referendums for schools, sewers, or recreation facilities.

Garrison's research on the socio-economic characteristics of areas voting favorably on library referendums can be applied to the planning of a campaign. His findings are summarized, and his method described, in his study of two bond issues in Akron, Ohio (20). His earlier study of voting in Seattle, Washington, was published by the Illinois State Library (18).

If the planners are free to select the election date, this should be done with care (10). The election should not be scheduled at a time when tax bills must be paid. The special election, with its generally lower turnout, has certain advantages, which are discussed by Lindahl and Berner (21) in their examination of three defeated bond issue referendums.

Money to finance the campaign should be planned for (5, 7, 10), and a tentative budget drawn up. Such money should not come from tax funds. Archer (5) suggests that a finance committee be appointed to obtain the necessary money. A Friends of the Library group is one important source of campaign funds.

The timing of the campaign should be worked out since it is impossible to maintain a high level of enthusiasm for long. Archer (5) and Lincoln (10) suggest limiting the campaign to between four and six weeks. This short period is suitable only for the intensive campaign, however. The intensive campaign can be the culmination of a long-term public relations program (4, 6, 8, 10, 16).

Components of this long-term program, lasting up to several years, should include good library service, plus publicity designed to make the public aware of the library's needs. The intensive campaign to urge voters to increase their taxes, then, comes as less of a surprise. Busch (6) reported the public relations activity in which the Minneapolis Public Library engaged before the Director felt that the community was willing to vote favorably on a tax increase.

One element of strategy in a bond issue campaign might be to make the preliminary building plans public (4, 17). Thus, it is argued, voters can see what they are approving. While such a course may be worthwhile, the plans may not be in final form, and changes may be made after the bond issue is approved. Or people may oppose the bond issue simply because they don't approve of the appearance of the proposed building. The effect of this factor deserves greater examination.

One element of campaign strategy on which recent writers agree is that the campaign should be largely conducted by citizens' groups. Such organizations as the Jaycees and the Friends of the Library can contribute manpower. The emphasis should be on securing people who are known for getting results. While political know-how is necessary in conducting a library campaign, it should be combined in people who are able to accomplish the task at hand. Reliance on citizens' groups, as Chait (7) stresses, does not mean that the library staff or the board should sit on the sidelines. Rather, their role is one of explaining why the referendum is needed and pointing out the benefits to the city of expanded public library service. Citizens working on the campaign, then, make the "pitch."

Slogans indicating how a citizen should vote have been used in several recent campaigns (4, 5, 6, 11, 16). Voters were urged to vote "yes" or "for" the referendum, depending on how the ballot was worded.

A final type of campaign strategy, requiring careful planning and a great deal of work, is to direct the campaign specifically toward those persons most likely to vote in favor of the library referendum. Lincoln (10) described the method used in Wheaton, Illinois. Garrison's research, and additional studies elsewhere, may be useful as guidelines in determining what kinds of people are most likely to be favorable. As favorable voters are identified during the campaign, the plans should include a method for being certain that the favorables do vote on election day. A calling committee contacted these people in Wheaton's successful campaign. Here, too, study of previous referendum votes in the city may reveal areas which usually vote against tax increases, and areas which usually vote in favor of them. The experience of local political leaders can also be of value.

Unfortunately, it is difficult to determine how representative the experiences described in recent articles on library referendums may be. They represent only a few instances, and no systematic comparison has been made between successful and unsuccessful library referendum campaigns.

Perhaps these libraries were fortunate in not meeting extensive opposition, except for Oak Park, Illinois (17). The results of Lindahl and Berner's (21) examination of three unsuccessful bond issue campaigns in Illinois suggest, however, that library supporters should plan for opposition, and prepare arguments in advance to meet it.

School Referendums

The same themes appear in recent articles on school referendums (22, 23, 24) as in reports about library referendums. Hard work is needed to explain to the members of the community through many volunteer workers what the school's problems are, and how these problems can be solved by voting for the referendum. But a defeat should cause one to search for reasons why. The detailed timetable used by the Mill Valley schools should be useful in planning a library campaign (24).

A voter opinion survey may also be useful in planning a referendum campaign. In Birmingham, Michigan (33), an administrator from the school district was made part of the research team studying voter opinion. He interpreted survey findings to other members of the school administration so that their planning could be guided by the information gathered. The authors of the survey suggest that such cooperation could be practiced more widely.

In a series of case studies of school districts which have waged successful campaigns for tax increases, after one or more failures, James Powell (32) isolated some factors common to the unsuccessful campaigns. These included: (1) limited public information programs in the pre-campaign period which failed to communicate the school's need for additional revenue; (2) the timing of the election which set the election date first and geared campaign activities to produce a peak of acceptance by that date, rather than gearing the campaign to produce acceptance, thereby determining the election date; and (3) apathy, even antipathy, by many influential citizens toward securing additional school facilities. Even though it is hard work to inform the community, Powell points out that a majority of those voting must be willing to vote the schools a tax increase.

Voting Behavior

Research into voting behavior in elections and referendums frequently focuses on voters, attempting to explain why they vote as they do. The planner of a library referendum campaign may find the results of voting behavior research useful as background for locating areas of his city most likely to vote for the referendum.

Alford's (36) survey of the changes in voting exhibited by various social groups in Presidential elections between 1936 and 1960 suggests that social class is one important determinant of an individual's vote. In the larger study of which his article is a part, Alford (35) developed an index of class voting. Although he does not deal specifically with referendums, Alford's work provides useful background for several studies of referendums which do examine the relationship of social class and socio-economic status to votes on referendums. Erbe's (39) examination of the relationship between high socio-economic status and political participation provides evidence that people of relatively high socio-economic status tend to participate more actively in politics than do people of lower socio-economic status. Erbe cites much earlier literature on this relationship, making his paper useful also as a guide to further reading.

Studies of local elections which examine the relationship between social class and party identification (41, 43) are also useful for understanding why people vote as they do on referendums. The study in Atlanta by Jennings and Zeigler (41) examines the effect of race, finding that Negroes and upper class whites both vote in favor of referendums. In the Cleveland metropolitan area, Norton (42) found that the greatest favorable vote tended to come from areas of low wealth and education in the city of Cleveland and from areas of high wealth and education in the suburbs.

Although these studies do not deal directly with referendums for libraries, their findings are similar to those which Garrison reports in his studies of library bond issues. Garrison (20) found that areas of Akron and Seattle high in percentage of adults with college training and also high in percentage of professional, technical, and managerial workers are very likely to vote favorably on a library bond issue. Areas of the cities that are central, low income, and predominantly Negro also tend to vote for the issue. Garrison also found that negative votes came from areas which are middle income, low in the number of college-trained adults, and high in the number of industrial workers.

Stone (44) has discussed an explanation for negative voting based on the concept of the alienated voter. He summarizes a body of research which suggests that people who vote against referendums do so as a protest against those in positions of authority. Lower status groups tend to have the greatest numbers of "no" voters because they tend to have the strongest feelings of helplessness and political ineffectiveness. Previous research further suggests that the proportion of negative votes should increase as turnout rises. The lower the turnout, then, the more likely the referendum is to be approved.

After testing this view of the alienated voter against referendums presented to voters in one small town during the years 1953 through 1962, Stone suggests that the view described above must be reevaluated. Rather than explain the negative vote primarily as a protest by people who feel alienated from the local government, Stone suggests that the explanation should be based on the presumption that most citizens are not especially concerned with local government. Thus a low-turnout referendum is likely to consist primarily of favorable votes from those who were active in developing the proposal. A high turnout involves more of those who are not usually active, and are almost always poorly informed. A high-turnout referendum may yield anything from a highly favorable result to a crushing defeat; a low-turnout referendum would be more likely to yield a victory. While the revised explanation is not necessarily incompatible with that based on the alienated voter, Stone believes that it permits one to examine types of referendums to see the kinds of issues most likely to generate protest votes, and it provides one with a broader base on which to explain the success or failure of a referendum.

Campaign Planning

For the campaign planner who is seeking practical advice in how to plan and conduct a successful campaign, a new edition of Paul Van Riper's Handbook of Practical Politics has recently been published by Harper and Row (57).

Studies of campaigns for political office suggest some techniques which also appear to be useful in a library referendum campaign. Although Polsby and Wildavsky (54) rightly caution that "the conduct of a campaign is far from being an established science; at best it is a shaky art," planners of campaigns in some fields are using the results of empirical research to plan and conduct both referendum campaigns and campaigns for political office.

A recent analysis of political campaigns traces the development of what the authors term the "new methodology" of campaigning which has been used increasingly since World War II (48). Recent Presidential campaigns, as well as campaigns for local political office, are analyzed to show how campaign managers make use of the results of research and of the services of professionals in public relations who adapt techniques which have proved successful in sales promotion.

Essentials of the new methodology are: (1) a candidate's primary concern is with projecting a favorable image; (2) a formal plan of strategy is developed; (3) the campaign organization includes a "strategy board" which "holds regular meetings to assess the candidate's progress and to plot needed changes in the implementation of his strategy"; (4) all campaign activity is carefully coordinated, both horizontally and vertically; (5) a single, simple basic theme is employed; and (6) formal polling techniques are employed to determine strategy, and to determine how the candidate is being received.

Lewis Froman (51) points out tactics suggested by empirical research which the campaigner should employ. Although Froman was writing with campaigns for political office in mind, the tactics he describes are applicable to referendum campaigns. Many people other than the candidate should be involved in the campaign to maximize the number of personal contacts the candidate's supporters can make with their friends. Froman points to research findings that the more personal a communication, the more effective it is. Therefore as much personal contact as possible should be used in the campaign. Brief announcements in the media can hit a variety of audiences and not monopolize their attention beyond their interest. The candidate for political office is cautioned not to publicize his opponent since the opponent thus receives "free" exposure. Froman also recommends a simple theme for the campaign around which to organize the content of campaign messages.

Stanley Kelley's study of political campaigns (52), also focusing on campaigns for office, develops a series of subjective standards for evaluating the discussion which takes place during campaigns. Kelley argues that once the assumption is accepted that campaign discussion should help voters to make rational voting decisions, much of the content of current political campaigns falls short of meeting the requirements of a discussion which would encourage rational voting. While Kelley's study deals with the content--the issues--of the campaign, it provides a useful analysis of the limitations imposed on a campaign, including legal framework, expectations of the electorate, and the capacities and conventions of the communications media.

Personal contact with individual voters has been found to be an important stimulus to increasing turnout and interest in an election. Milbrath (53) reported on studies which examined the proposition that personal contact with individual voters is an important stimulus to increasing interest and turnout, at least in partisan elections.

In two experiments conducted in Ann Arbor, Michigan, in 1953 and 1954, Eldersveld and Dodge (49, 50) compared the effect of mailed propaganda with the effect of personal contact on stimulating voting. In the 1953 study, the researchers sought to influence selected individuals to vote in favor of general revision of the Ann Arbor city charter. Individuals selected had been identified the previous year as being either neutral or opposed to charter revision. These individuals were randomly assigned to one of three groups: personal contact, mail propaganda, and control. Individuals in the personal contact group were canvassed by University of Michigan students who were all expected to argue the case for charter revision from the same point of view. Individuals in the mail propaganda group received four waves of pro-revision propaganda. After the election had been held and the charter revision approved, Eldersveld and Dodge found a "perceptible trend toward greater approval of charter revision among the experimental groups" than among the control group. Their results suggest that personal contact with voters may be more influential than contact through the mails.

The following year, in the 1954 city election, Eldersveld conducted a second field experiment designed to examine the extent to which similar results could be obtained, and also to examine different types of mail and personal contact. Citizens who had voted in three previous state and national elections

(1948, 1950, and 1952), but who had not voted in intervening local elections, were selected. These citizens were assigned randomly to a control group or to one of six experimental groups. The six experimental groups included three groups contacted in person, two groups contacted by differing forms of mail propaganda, and one group contacted both in person and by mail. The results suggest, as in the earlier study, that personal contact did influence people to vote. It appeared that an approach in person was more effective in increasing turnout than an approach by mail. Eldersveld also suggested that there are limits to the effectiveness of personal contact which are difficult to specify.

Summary

The literature bearing on the planning and conduct of referendum campaigns provides several indications of what is likely to constitute a successful campaign. The general literature on voting behavior provides guidance in finding out how various groups are likely to vote. This information can be used in planning an approach to these groups. Opinion polls may also be useful in planning arguments which voters are likely to accept. As the campaign strategy is being developed, a theme can be selected which will serve as an organizing element for campaign publicity. Campaign costs should be estimated and a method for raising money worked out.

The campaign strategy should also anticipate points which opponents are likely to raise. While not giving the opposition any free publicity, library supporters might be able to anticipate opposition arguments and incorporate them into the library's publicity. In anticipating opposition, library supporters might also attempt to determine what individuals or groups are likely to oppose the referendum. Perhaps they can be persuaded that the referendum should be supported, not opposed.

Successful library referendum campaigns are frequently conducted by citizens' groups. The Friends of the Library or a specially formed group may provide the needed formal organization. So that the effects of personal contact can work in favor of the library, citizens from all segments of the community should work on the campaign. The activity of everyone working for the library campaign should be coordinated to ensure that tasks are accomplished in an orderly manner, and that workers are kept informed.

Through advance planning, potentially favorable voters can be identified as the campaign progresses. On election day poll watchers can be supplied with lists, and potential "yes" voters can be urged, by phone, to vote if they have not already done so.

While the campaign should be kept short, it should have been preceded by good library service and continued efforts to explain the library's needs to the public in order to develop a citizenry which feels that the library is an institution worth improving.

Despite all of the advice available on planning library referendum campaigns, following this advice does not, in itself, guarantee success at the polls, but careful preparation and a strong desire to win are very important.

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PART V

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF PUBLIC LIBRARY SYSTEMS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO LEVEL OF SERVICE OFFERED BY MEMBER LIBRARIES

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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The provision of materials and services of a uniformly high quality to all the people in the country is the goal of the public library in the United States. Attainment of this goal has presented problems of a large order for a number of reasons. One of them is the difficulty of determining the type of administrative structure for regional public library systems that allows the member libraries to give the highest level of service possible.

Development of Regional Organization

During the first half century of its existence, the public library made its resources available only to the persons in its legal service area (which was usually the area within the city limits), and persons living outside the city had no service readily available to them. Gradually the needs of the rural residents were recognized, and various means were used to extend service to them. Additional independent libraries, including county and township libraries, were established to make library service available to greater segments of the population. A number of factors, among them the increasing needs for library service of all citizens, along with increases and shifts in the population, combined to give rise to the idea of regional organization of public library service.

One of the earliest published statements recommending regional organization of library service was made in 1935 by C. B. Joeckel in his book Government of the American Public Library. In developing his position, Joeckel focused attention on the inadequacy of the prevailing practice of establishing additional independent local libraries to meet needs. He pointed out that locally governed and supported libraries had inherent limitations that made it impossible for them to provide adequate library service to the country as a whole. He emphasized that:

> The small library, no matter how carefully its reference and circulating books are selected, remains a small library. Its collection is not fluid. Unused materials on its shelves cannot be shifted to a

> central reservoir and replaced with other materials from the same source. Its reference work is at best, elementary. . . .[1]

The plan Joeckel proposed was to organize the public library as a regional institution and make its service areas coterminous with the natural trading areas of the country. The central advantage to be gained from regional libraries, according to Joeckel, derived from "an enlarged consciousness of the importance of a system of libraries, of the problem of library service as a whole, rather than about the library as a matter of concern only to individual communities."[2] Joeckel's plan for the regional organization of public libraries presented a new approach to the problem of offering adequate library service to all segments of the population. He proposed that the library should be regional instead of municipal and that regional libraries should be created by the reorganization of existing libraries into federations in each of the state's natural regions, without respect to the local political boundaries.

The idea for regional libraries first appeared during the depression when there was a move to extend federal aid to state and local government services. The momentum of this trend was reduced with the outbreak of the Second World War, but shortly after the War began, planning was started to prepare a national program for post-war public library development. The publication of two sets of standards was the immediate result of this planning effort: Post-War Standards, issued in 1943,[3] and the National Plan for Public Library Service, published five years later in 1948.[4] Committees were responsible for both sets of standards, but Joeckel was chairman of both, and the influence of his thought is unmistakable.

Another step in the development of regional organization of public libraries was the publication of the Public Library Inquiry, which was begun in 1948, the same year that the National Plan appeared. Conducted primarily by nonlibrarians whose background was in the social sciences, the Inquiry examined public library objectives, programs, structure, operations, and problems from the outsider's point of view and supported Joeckel's plan for regional libraries. The Inquiry compared the reluctance of local libraries to relinquish control of their operations through consolidation to the reaction in other instances of consolidation of local public services and suggested that better results might be obtained by federations of libraries than by legal consolidations of independent units. A gradual approach was recommended as more satisfactory than compulsory consolidation.

One of the early implementations of the concept of regional library systems was in New York State. An indication of the level of service in 1940 may be derived from the estimate that approximately 1,500,000 persons in the state had no local public library service. The unserved group constituted more than 10 percent of the state's total population and 25 percent of the upstate region. The educational resources of the unserved population were seriously limited by this lack of public library service.[5]

Recognizing the inadequacy of the public library service, the New York Library Association asked the Research Division of the State Department of Education to conduct "a complete study of the present and future status of state-wide library service" in 1944. A preliminary report of the study made two suggestions: that a regional system of public library service be established and that local libraries be given increased state financial aid.[6] The complete report of the study proposed a major reorganization of library service in the state, and the magnitude of the program involved prompted the Regents to pass a resolution asking for "the establishment of an experimental program of regional library service in one region for a period of approximately three years."[7] In 1948 the legislature appropriated $100,000 to support the experimental program, and the Watertown region was chosen to serve as the subject of the study. The Watertown Regional Center was established April 1, 1948, to extend library service to a three-county area. The importance of retaining local control for some operations and at the same time giving other functions to the state agency was recognized.

At the end of the three-year trial period of the Watertown experiment, its success was evaluated by the State Education Department. The published results of the evaluation state:

> The experiment in regional library service has demonstrated that the program advanced by the Regional Plan is sound and workable. . . . There is no question but that the Plan has resulted in improved local library service. . . . Local communities have increased their dollar support of local libraries during the period of the experiment. . . . The Regional Plan for Library Service has been particularly successful in establishing good working relations between State and local officials. . . . The Regional Plan for Library Service has approximately met the original expectations as to efficiency. . . . The idea of a library service center that would give a wholesale service to individual libraries is proved to be sound.[8]

The success of the regional organization of public libraries was clearly demonstrated in this evaluative report, and regionalization of library service in New York state moved forward with the New York State Legislature passing a statute making state aid available for county and multicounty systems of public libraries.

After the New York experiment with regional organization proved successful, other states began to set up regional library systems. The implementation of the regional concept in California is of particular interest because careful study and discussion of the plan by the state's leaders in public library service and the members of the state library association preceded the adoption of the plan. Two workshops were held to discuss the proposed standards that would serve as criteria of the adequacy of public library service in California.[9] The standards adopted by the state in 1953 embodied unequivocally the concept of regional systems of public libraries.

New national standards for public library service were adopted by the American Library Association in 1956. The standards are of particular significance to this discussion because they were set up specifically for systems of libraries. Previous standards supported the concept of public library systems, but they were written for individual libraries. The following statement in the standards makes clear the importance placed on systems:

> Libraries working together, sharing their services and materials, can meet the full needs of their users. *This cooperative approach on the part of the libraries is the most important single recommendation of this document*. Without joint action, most American libraries probably will never be able to come up to the standard necessary to meet the needs of their constituencies.[10]

With their orientation toward systems of libraries, the new standards provided a means of putting into practice the concepts of regional public library organization Joeckel had proposed two decades earlier.

The same year the new standards were adopted, the federal Library Services Act was signed into law by President Eisenhower. This Act was the first major federal legislation passed for the support of public libraries. The Act required the formulation of acceptable state plans for the use of federal funds before the money was made available. Many of the plans included sections outlining larger units of service proposed as a means of extending service to the rural population because the extension of service to rural areas was one of the main purposes of the Act. In a number of the plans, there was specific mention of public library systems as they were set up in the new national standards for public library service.[11]

Before the Library Services Act expired, legislation for its extension was passed, and in 1964 the Library Services and Construction Act came into existence. The Library Services and Construction Act was broader in scope, and almost no restrictions were placed on the use of the funds as long as they were used in accordance with an accepted state plan. An important provision of the Act was for monies to be used for extension of service in urban areas where central libraries of systems frequently were located. Providing high quality service to all users of libraries, urban and rural, was the primary concern of the Act.

Minimum Standards for Public Library Systems, 1966, was adopted by the Public Library Association of the American Library Association in July, 1966. The practicality of library systems for providing service had been demonstrated in many different situations during the ten years since the first standards specifically for public library systems had been adopted. The principles stated in the new standards mark the culmination of three decades of effort to improve the level of public library service by an organization of regional units replacing local independent libraries.

Types of Public Library Systems

Relatively little research attention has been given to the particular type of administrative structure that has been used in library systems. Flexibility has been emphasized in the statements made in the standards for public library service, but the choice has been left to the individual system.

In the Post-War Standards, the variety of system patterns that had been developed was recognized. The following six types of library units were included:

1. Independent city libraries, to which may be added adjoining communities or contiguous territory by contract or other arrangement
2. County libraries serving the entire area of large counties
3. County libraries in large counties in which one or more cities constitute independent library units
4. Regional or multicounty libraries, consisting of several counties

5. A federated group of libraries in a natural region, not a unified governmental agency, but with carefully integrated cooperative services approximating those of a county or regional library
6. Special units, such as a small state organized as a single library unit, or state districts served by branches of the state library.[12]

Five years later, the same six types of library units were enumerated in the National Plan. At the time the National Plan was published, all the patterns except one were in operation; there were no library systems organized according to the fifth pattern, federated groups of libraries. In presenting the different patterns, the National Plan pointed out some of the distinctive features of the patterns and their advantages and disadvantages. The regional or multicounty library it termed "an emerging pattern of rapidly growing importance."[13] The pattern had been successful in other fields of government, such as public health, and it was expected to be especially applicable to states where a variety of factors, such as sparse population or low tax-paying ability, had prevented development of local community libraries. Federated groups of libraries were seen as suited to the parts of the country where large numbers of small, independent libraries were already well established. The pattern is based on active cooperation between a group of small libraries in a region and the library in the central city of the region to achieve a goal of providing jointly a carefully planned program of service for the entire region.

Neither the 1956 standards nor the Minimum Standards for Public Library Systems, 1966, specify the organizational patterns of systems. However, the Nelson Associates study of public library systems, published in 1969, noted the existence of five predominant patterns of organizational structure: "(1) county libraries, (2) multicounty or regional libraries, (3) special district libraries, (4) state supplementary libraries, and (5) state-wide, state-governed systems."[14]

While there is a fairly large body of descriptive literature about general aspects of public library systems, no published study has been found on the relationship between the administrative structure of the public library systems and the level of library service given by the members of the system, the topic of the present study. Two recently published studies have touched briefly on the administrative structure of public library systems: Emerging Library Systems[15] and Public Library Systems in the United States.[16]

Emerging Library Systems, an evaluation of public library systems in New York State, mentions the three types of administrative structures that have developed in the State: consolidated, federated, and cooperative systems. Systems with a consolidated form of administrative structure are usually large city library systems or county systems. To establish a federated system, a board of trustees to govern the system must be appointed by the county board of supervisors; although there is a system board, each member library maintains its own board to handle local matters. To create a cooperative system, action by the trustees of the member libraries that will be a part of the system is all that is required; no action by the governing bodies of any of the political units involved is needed.

The majority of the public library systems in New York State have the cooperative administrative structure. The study attributes a large part of the success of public library systems in the state to the use of the cooperative structure, which "attempts to build on existing strengths and fully respects local autonomy." The New York plan of building upon the independent community library is based on the theory that

> . . . there are certain strengths and virtues in local initiative and local control; that it should be possible to retain these and at the same time, by means of the system, provide the services which are otherwise available only from larger libraries.[17]

While the permissive and undemanding qualities of the cooperative systems were important factors in making it possible to organize public library service throughout the state on a system basis in a relatively short period of time, these same qualities have prohibited the reorganization of public library service in some areas of the state on a more efficient basis. If consolidation had been the structural form of the systems, administrative authority could have been used to make the needed changes, but with the cooperative systems, only advisory action was possible. Persuasion and example had to be employed to promote needed changes.

Public Library Systems in the United States, the recently completed study by Nelson Associates for the Public Library Association, considers briefly the administrative structure of public library systems. The major part of the study is an intensive investigation of six library systems. On the basis of the results of the examination of these six systems, Nelson Associates makes the following statement:

> With respect to internal organizational structure there appear to be almost no generalizations to draw from the organizations of these six systems without running head-on into a contradiction, as small as the group is. Two of the most successful systems, for example, are at opposite poles with respect to centralization of authority. Results, as measured by improved library service to users, are not predetermined in the structure of the systems.[18]

The above generalizations drawn from the Nelson study suggest that further study of the administrative structure of library systems is needed. The Nelson study is a nationwide survey of all aspects of public library systems, and as such it could not be expected to devote a great deal of attention to the administrative structure of the systems. These statements about the administrative structure are made on the basis of six library systems whose comparability is doubtful because they have such widely divergent structures and serve both urban and rural populations and populations of greatly differing sizes.

The Hypotheses

It is generally acknowledged that the organization of public libraries into larger units has supplied the means for offering better service to more people than independent local public libraries are able to provide. The present study will test this assumption. A general hypothesis may be stated as follows:

> Other things being equal, public libraries that belong to systems will be able to offer a higher level of service than public libraries that do not belong to systems.

Although the administrative structure affects all aspects of the operation of the system, the focus of this study is limited to the effect the administrative structure has on the level of service member libraries of the system offer. Consideration of the role of administrative structure in the success of the public library system has led to the development of the following hypothesis. It is suggested that there is a direct relationship between the type of administrative structure of the system and the level of service the member libraries give. The benefits that the systems offer to their member libraries are the cause of the difference in the level of service. The focus of this statement may be sharpened by specifying the types of administrative structure, and the resulting hypothesis stands as follows:

> Other things being equal, public libraries that belong to consolidated systems will give a higher level of service than public libraries that belong to cooperative systems because of the benefits the consolidated system offers to its branch libraries.

In this statement of the hypothesis, the administrative structure of the systems (consolidated, cooperative, and nonsystem libraries) serves as the independent variable, and the level of service member libraries offer serves as the dependent variable. The benefits the system offers to its member libraries serve as the causal factor. If the data collected for this study supply evidence to support this hypothesis, it can be recommended that more specific attention be devoted to the choice of the administrative structure of public library systems.

Definition of Terms

Definitions of the terms used in the hypothesis, as well as other terms used in a special sense in the study, are given below. The first three definitions are those formulated by the Public Library Association.[19]

Public library system--an association of autonomous local public libraries or a group of branch libraries working together to improve library service for all the residents of a given area.

Consolidated system--a public library system whose administration consists of a single library board and an administrator who directs all the libraries in the area as a single autonomous unit.

Cooperative system--a public library system whose administrative structure consists of a board made up of representative board members of the local libraries that belong to the system.

Nonsystem library--a library in a central city of a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area plus the public libraries in all the towns included in the SMSA. All the libraries are independent units, and there is no system structure in the area. To make the nonsystem libraries comparable to the systems of public libraries, the library in the central city is treated as if it were a headquarters library and all the libraries in the towns in the SMSA are treated as if they were member libraries of the system.

System benefits--benefits defined in the model that the central library or headquarters unit offers to the member libraries of the system. An example of a system benefit is centralized reference service.

Branch library--a unit of a consolidated system.

Member library--a unit of a cooperative system.

References to Chapter I

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[6] Ibid., p. 3.

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CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

The case study method is the research design selected because it is best suited to the exploratory nature of the present investigation. In a case study, a small number of cases are chosen because they are good examples of the problem being studied, a great deal of information is collected about these few cases, and from these data the investigator attempts to gain insight into his problem. Although the case study may take different forms, it is usually thought of as a study of one case. In this study, the classic approach has been modified to include more than one case. Each of the two types of administrative structure (cooperative and consolidated) is represented by three library systems, and three nonsystem libraries are included as control cases; thus, a total of nine library "systems" are included in the case study.

A Model of Public Library Systems

Models are used extensively in mathematics, logic, and physical sciences, but they are not used widely in the social sciences. Essentially the model is a simplification of a complex real situation; it selects specific aspects of a problem and reduces them to their essence so that they are manageable.[1]

The American Library Association's Minimum Standards for Public Library Systems, 1966, formed the basis for the development of the model of public library systems for this study. The many different aspects of the administrative structure of the systems and the services the systems offer their member libraries, as specified in the Standards, were examined and evaluated with respect to their relevance to the problem to be investigated. Aspects of systems considered to be most pertinent to the relationship of administrative structure and the level of service were selected and used in building the model of public library systems.

Three major parts make up the model of public library systems: (1) administrative structure of the system, (2) level of service offered by the member libraries, and (3) benefits systems offer to their member libraries. Each part of the model is discussed below in terms of its constituent categories and the measures that make up the categories, along with the reasons for using each measure. An outline of the model is shown in Figure 1.

The first part of the model is the administrative structure of the systems, and it serves as the independent variable in the study. The categories are defined and no measures are used; the three categories are the three types of structure: (1) consolidated systems, (2) cooperative systems, and (3) nonsystem libraries.

The second part of the model is the level of service offered by the member libraries, and it serves as the dependent variable in the study. Five categories contain measures that serve as indicators of the level of service. The five categories are: (1) access to the library, (2) holdings and quality of the resources, (3) amount of use of the resources, (4) personnel, and (5) amount of financial resources.

Access to the library contains two measures: (1) number of hours the library is open per week, and (2) provision for reciprocal use of materials (i.e., persons from any part of the service area of the system can use the resources in any of the member libraries). It is likely that more service will be offered by a library that is open a greater number of hours per week, and in this study more service is considered equivalent to a higher level of service. Provision for reciprocal use of materials makes possible a higher level of service because it makes more resources available more conveniently.

In the second category, holdings and quality of the resources, holdings were measured by the number of volumes added to the collection. In gross terms, it was assumed that it is possible to equate size with quality and say that it is likely that a larger collection of materials will be a better collection. The presence of a better collection will make it possible for a staff to offer a higher level of service. The quality of the collection was measured by the extent of the nonbook resources (films, recordings, and periodical titles) and holdings in one subject area. Nonbook resources serve as indicators of quality of the collection because their presence adds a dimension to the resources that makes it possible to offer a higher level of service than would be possible without them. American history was chosen for the one subject area because it is a subject likely to be used by the public libraries' largest group of users, secondary school students; if the collection meets the needs of this group of users, a minimum level of quality presumably has been met.

FIGURE 1. MODEL OF PUBLIC LIBRARY SYSTEMS

- I. Administrative structure of the system (independent variable)
  - A. Consolidated systems
  - B. Cooperative systems
  - C. Nonsystem libraries
- II. Level of service offered by member libraries (dependent variable)
  - A. Access to the library
    - 1. Hours open
    - 2. Provision for reciprocal use
  - B. Holdings and quality of the collection
    - 1. Holdings (book and nonbook)
    - 2. Quality of the collection
  - C. Amount of use of the resources
  - D. Personnel
    - 1. Number of staff members
    - 2. Education of staff members
  - E. Amount of financial resources
- III. Benefits systems offer to member libraries (causal factor)
  - A. Representative benefits
    - 1. Centralized reference service
    - 2. In-service training program
    - 3. Aid in book selection
    - 4. Miscellaneous benefits
      - a. Larger collections from which to borrow
      - b. Communication
      - c. Maintenance of union lists of system holdings
      - d. Selection of personnel
  - B. Administrative functions
    - 1. Encouragement of innovation
    - 2. Evaluation
    - 3. Role in policy making

The amount of use of the resources was measured by circulation of materials for use outside the library. The level of service offered by a library will be reflected in the use that is made of the resources. With some reservations, it may be assumed that if a library has good resources, it is more likely that the library is used than if the resources are not good. The amount of use of the resources (as indicated by circulation) thus may be taken as one indication of the level of the resources of the library.

The fourth category, personnel, is made up of three measures: (1) total number of persons on the staff, (2) their level of education, and (3) the amount of time they spend on the job (i.e., full-time or part-time). If libraries have staff members who have college and library school background and they work full time, it may be assumed that the libraries will be more likely to offer better service than libraries with staff members who have less education and work part-time.

The amount of financial resources was measured by the operating expenditures. Other things being equal, the amount of money a library has to spend is directly related to the number, kinds, and level of services it will be able to offer to its patrons. It is likely that with more money to spend, libraries will be able to offer a higher level of service than libraries with less money to spend.

The third part of the model is made up of the benefits systems offer to their member libraries, and it serves as the causal factor in the study. Two categories contain the measures that serve as indicators of the benefits offered. The two categories are: (1) representative benefits systems offer to their member libraries and (2) administrative functions of the systems.

Representative benefits offered by the system contain four measures directly involved in enabling the member libraries to offer a higher level of service: (1) centralized reference service, (2) in-service training programs, (3) aid in book selection, and (4) miscellaneous services.

Centralized reference service is the first measure; reference service is one of the principal services a library offers to the public, and the availability of a centralized reference service in the central library or the system headquarters makes it possible for a small member library to offer better reference service than would be possible if this resource were not available. The pattern of centralized reference service defined by the model is the development of a strong collection of reference resources by the central library or headquarters unit and the concurrent building of a staff of librarians trained and experienced in reference work. The services of the staff of reference librarians are available to the libraries that are members of the system or to the patrons of any of the member libraries.

In-service training programs are not so directly related to the level of service the member libraries are able to offer, but they have an important indirect effect. The in-service training programs systems offer to their member libraries affect the level of service by increasing the participating librarians' knowledge of library practice and procedures. In many cases, the persons who operate the small member libraries of systems have no professional library training. The in-service training programs give them some background, and as their general knowledge about the operation of a library increases, they are able to offer a higher level of service than they would be able to without the background.

Aid in book selection is also indirectly related to the level of service the member libraries offer. In many small public libraries, the person who selects the books for the collection has no training in book selection procedures and, consequently, the development of the collection suffers. When a system offers help in book selection to its member libraries, the system has assembled a staff of librarians professionally trained in the methods of book selection and expert in a variety of subject areas. On the basis of their general knowledge and the reviews they read, the staff compiles a list of recommended titles; this list is circulated to the member libraries on a regular basis, and the member libraries select the titles from the lists that they want to add to their collections. Collections built by such a selection procedure will be of higher quality than those built by individual librarians who have no professional training in book selection. With the development of better collections of books in the member libraries, it will be possible for the member libraries to offer a higher level of service to patrons.

Miscellaneous system benefits are directly related to the level of service the member libraries are able to offer. The variable is made up of a group of three sub-measures: (1) provision of a large collection of resources from which member libraries can borrow to supplement their resources, (2) a communication system linking the members of the system to the central library and to each other, and (3) maintenance of a union list of system holdings.

Provision of a large collection of resources enables member libraries to offer a higher level of service because, in many cases, the resources of the small member libraries are severely limited by the lack of funds to purchase books and other library materials. Access to an extensive collection of both book and nonbook materials from which they have the right to borrow presumably makes it possible for them to offer a higher level of service than would be possible with only their own resources.

The communication system is made up of a number of different means of communication that systems of libraries can use to link the members to each other and to the central or headquarters unit and the headquarters to resources outside the system. The most common forms of communication are regularly published newsletters, telephones with credit cards or WATS lines (Wide Area Telephone Service) and teletype. It is assumed that a system that has a high level of communication among its libraries will be likely to offer a higher level of service than systems that do not have such communication. If a member library does not have an item requested by a patron, the communication system facilitates the search for the item in the area.

The maintenance of a union list of system holdings directly affects the level of service because it permits the rapid identification of the presence or absence of a particular item in the area. The union list may take different forms, such as a card catalog or a computer-produced book catalog.

Selection of personnel affects the level of service because it influences the quality of the personnel hired. It is assumed that a central library of a system tends to have more resources to find candidates for positions and will be able to locate a higher level of applicants than will small independent libraries. It is likely that the better-qualified personnel who are hired as a result of the procedure will be able to offer a higher level of service than the less qualified personnel whom individual public libraries might be able to find.

The second category of benefits, administrative functions of the system, consists of three measures that are somewhat less directly related to the level of service offered by the member libraries than the measures in the first category: (1) encouragement of innovation in procedures, (2) evaluation procedures, and (3) policy making.

Encouragement of innovation affects the level of service, in that, other things being equal, it reflects individual desire to improve the level of service. It is assumed that active system encouragement of new procedures may promote innovation by the member libraries, with a resulting improvement in the level of service.

Evaluation procedures seek to determine how well the needs of the users are being met by the libraries in the system. Attention is focused on one aspect of evaluation: feedback as an indication of adequacy. The investigator assumes that a determination of the effectiveness of present services in meeting the needs of users is a necessary preliminary step in offering a higher level of service.

Policy making is centered on the role of the member libraries in the making of system policy. From the member library's point of view, the role in policy-making is a formalization of the first two measures in this category (encouragement of innovation and evaluation). Active participation in the making of system policy by member libraries, it is assumed, leads to a higher level of service because the member libraries are a more integral part of the system.

Statistical Tests

The data collected for the present study are not randomly selected from a normally distributed population. The measures serving as indicators of the causal factor (benefits systems offer to their member libraries) are ordinal level measures. These two conditions must be taken into account and caution exercised in making inferences from the results of the tests.

The relationship between the administrative structure of the systems (the independent variable) and the level of service offered by the member libraries (the dependent variable) was determined by computing a measure of association. A Pearson product moment correlation (designated as r) was calculated.[2]

The statistical hypothesis being tested is that there is no association between the administrative structure and the level of service offered by the member libraries (*i.e.*, $H_o = r = 0$). To test the hypothesis, a critical level of .05 was set, and the correlation coefficients were tested using the formula $1.96\ (1/\sqrt{N-1}\ )$, where 1.96 represents the standard value necessary to compute the .05 level of significance and $(1/\sqrt{N-1})$ is the standard error.

A group of three measures (two checklists and a performance test) was used to test the quality of the collections of the 30 libraries in the subsample. The data from these measures were grouped by administrative structure of the system (consolidated, cooperative, nonsystem), and the significance of the differences among them was tested by the analysis of variance.[3] The statistical hypothesis being tested is that the means of the three groups of data are equal, i.e., $H_o = \mu_{CN} = \mu_{CO} = \mu_N$ where μ_{CN} = population mean of consolidated systems, μ_{CO} = population mean of cooperative systems, and μ_N = population mean of nonsystem libraries. A critical level of .05 is used.

The relationship between the benefits systems offer their member libraries (the causal factor) and the administrative structure of the systems (the independent variable) is tested by the Student's _t_-test.[4] The _t_-tests were calculated for each pair of administrative structures for each measure in the data from the directors and for each measure in the data from the member libraries. A one-tailed test is used because the direction of the result is predicted. The critical region is set at .10 for two reasons: the exploratory nature of the study and the small size of the sample ($N = 9$ for the data from the directors, and $N = 21$ for the data from the member libraries). The statistical hypothesis being tested is that there is no difference between the means when the data are grouped according to the administrative structure of the system, i.e., $\mu_{CN} = \mu_{CO} = \mu_N$.

Collection of Data

With the model of public library systems established, procedures for the collection of data were developed. A sampling design for the selection of the cases was established, and six public library systems and three nonsystem libraries were chosen. Also, a subsample of libraries within the sample was chosen.

Selection of the Sample

The initial universe of public library systems identified by Nelson Associates for their study of public library systems in the United States was accepted for this study; Nelson Associates defined a system as a multi-jurisdictional unit in operation on January 1, 1964,[5] and asked the state librarians of each state to list the systems in their states that met the requirements of the definition.

For the purposes of the present study, several limitations were placed on this universe. Only urban library systems were considered. The differences between rural and urban public library systems are too great to allow the use of both types of systems in a study of this nature, and the use of urban systems focuses the study on the level of service offered to residents of metropolitan areas by public libraries linked together by systems having differing organizational structures. A further restriction defined systems for study as those with headquarters in the central city of a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area[6] (hereafter referred to by the abbreviation SMSA) having a population of 100,000 to 500,000. Medium-sized urban areas were selected because the systems of libraries in cities of this size show the desired differences in organizational structure yet are less complex than those in the largest urban areas.

Given these restrictions, the sample limits the types of organizational structures of the library systems to be included. Three types of library systems are generally recognized: cooperative, federated, and consolidated. For the purposes of this study, systems with cooperative and consolidated organization and groups of libraries with no formal system structure were selected. The consolidated and cooperative forms were chosen because their organizational structures are the most contrasting of the three types of systems and also because there are very few federated systems in the United States. The libraries without system organization were included as a control group.

Selection of the nine cases forming the basis of the study by random sampling was neither desirable nor possible because the best available definition of the universe is not sufficiently precise to insure the drawing of systems with the organizational structures being studied. The first criterion used in the selection of the systems was that they be good systems in terms of services offered and resources held. Good systems were chosen because if differences exist in them, it is reasonable to expect that they will exist in all systems. The advice of several persons knowledgeable in the field of public library systems and familiar with the quality of the systems being considered provided the basis for the decision. Location in different geographical regions of the country, rather than in a single region, was the second criterion for selection. Several factors prohibited the representation of every geographical region; in some areas of the country, the systems are predominantly rural, and in other regions, even the urban systems are too weak to form a good basis for comparison with systems from other regions.

Within this sampling framework, six library systems were chosen. The three consolidated systems are: Evansville and Vanderburgh County Public Library, Indiana; the Public Library of Charlotte and Mecklenburg County, North Carolina; and Tulsa City-County Library System, Oklahoma. The three cooperative systems are: Illinois Valley Library System, Peoria, Illinois; Onondaga Library System, Syracuse, New York; and San Joaquin Valley Library System, Fresno, California.

Three nonsystem libraries, which met the same criteria of location and quality as the systems, were chosen. The difficulties experienced in finding three libraries that met the above requirements and had no formal system structure are noted in Chapter III. The three nonsystem libraries and their SMSA's are: New Haven (Connecticut) Public Library; Omaha (Nebraska) Public Library; and Wichita (Kansas) Public Library.

A subsample of member libraries consisting of 10 percent of the total number of libraries was considered to be within the scope of the study. To choose the subsample, all the member libraries in each system were listed and the number of volumes held by each was given. If a library had branches, each branch was listed with its holdings and considered a separate unit. Although the branches are parts of larger units, they provide service to a segment of the metropolitan population, justifying their treatment as independent units. Counting the branches of the city libraries as separate units gives a larger total than if the city library and branches were counted as one unit, and this in turn permits the drawing of a larger sample than would be possible otherwise. It is desirable to have as large a sample as possible for purposes of the analysis.

From this list of libraries and the number of volumes they hold, 10 percent of the member libraries with the largest holdings and not part of the city library were drawn. A further criterion was added in one system (Tulsa City-County Library System): the branches must be in different regions of the system. The largest member libraries were taken because they have a sufficient number of resources to study; some of the smaller libraries have seriously limited resources. The 10 percent sample of member libraries was combined with the nine system headquarters libraries to form the subsample of 30 libraries.

Data Collection Instruments

The instruments designed for gathering the data took several different forms--interviews, questionnaires, checklists, and a performance test. Before the instruments were used in the field, they were pre-tested and the necessary changes were made in them. In addition to the instruments used to collect data for the two parts of the public library systems model, a group of questions was included on the questionnaire to gather the following descriptive data: age of the central city library, age of the system, length of tenure of the director, the population served by the system, the square miles in the service area, and the number of volumes held in the collection of the central city library.

Three different types of instruments were used to collect data about the dependent variable: questionnaire, checklists, and a test of performance. The questionnaires were sent by mail to all the libraries in the nine systems (N = 138). The other instruments were used by the investigator to collect data during the field visits to the 30 libraries in the subsample.

In constructing the questionnaire, the questions were developed from the model of public library systems presented earlier. Modifications had to be made for anticipated differences between the two types of systems, between the systems and the nonsystems, and between the directors and members (all forms of the questionnaires are presented in appendices A-C). The questions were stated in such a manner as to obtain equivalent data for analysis. Questions called for the actual values of factual data in order to produce data of interval level measure, and no opinions or attitudes were sought. Information for varying periods of time was requested; in some cases, information is required for only the last fiscal year (1967/68), while in others data from the last three fiscal years (1967/68, 1966/67, and 1965/66) are called for.

In addition to the questionnaire, two checklists were used to collect data about the quality of the collections from the members of the subsample of 30 libraries. The first checklist served as a device for gathering information about the quality of the periodical holdings in the collections. The list was made up of the 157 periodical titles indexed by the _Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature_, August, 1968. The second checklist served as an instrument to collect data about the quality of one subject area in the collections, American history. The 100 most important titles in American history for high school selected by John E. Wiltz, professor of history at Indiana University, comprised this checklist.[7]

The performance test consisted of a set of ten reference questions which are modifications of the questions first used in the evaluative study of systems in New York State[8] and more recently in Goldhor's study of metropolitan libraries in the Minneapolis-Sant Paul area.[9] Although the exact statement of the questions varies, the pattern of the questions remains the same (Appendix D). The ten questions were sent to the 30 libraries in the subsample prior to the investigator's visit, and the instructions that accompanied them asked that the questions be treated as if they were an ordinary patron request for information. Only the source of the information and the amount of time taken to find it were required. The answered questions were collected by the investigator during the field visits.

Structured interviews were used to collect all the data for the causal factor. Interviews were conducted only in the 30 libraries in the subsample. Interview schedules were sent ahead so that interviewees could prepare their answers to the questions if they desired. The investigator used the interview schedules to collect the data during the field visits.

The questions used in the interviews were also developed from the model of public library systems, and they were designed to produce equivalent information from respondents with differing points of view. Questions had to be stated in such a way as to get the same information from system and nonsystem libraries, and from directors and members of systems (variant forms of the interview schedule appear in appendices E-G).

Before the data collection instruments were used in the field, they were tested in a regional cooperative public library system, the Lincoln Trails Libraries, Champaign, Illinois, and at one of the two central libraries of this system the Champaign Public Library, Both the Director of the Lincoln Trails Libraries and the Librarian of the Champaign Public Library are experienced in systems operations, and they pointed out unclear questions and areas where further definitions were needed in the interview schedules and the questionnaires. The suggestions made in both cases were included in the revised form of the instruments.

Both the interviews and the completion of the questionnaires were timed during the pre-test, and the results of these tests provided the investigator with an estimate of the amount of time each activity would take in the field.

The checklists were tested in the Champaign Public Library. The library's list of periodical holdings was checked against the checklist of periodical titles, and the list of 100 American history titles was checked through the card catalog. Neither procedure appeared to present any problems, and timing the actual checking gave an estimate of the amount of time needed for this operation.

Procedures for Collection of Data

The nature of several of the data collecting instruments called for field visits by the investigator. To gather data with these instruments, visits were made to each of the 30 libraries in the subsample in September and October of 1968. Other data from all the libraries in the sample were collected by mail questionnaires.

As a first step in planning the field visits, a letter was sent to the directors of the six systems asking if they would participate in the study. The letter described briefly the nature of the problem under investigation and estimated the amount of time participation in the study would involve. In the case of the nonsystem libraries, a letter had to be sent to each of the libraries in the SMSA that would be visited, as well as to the director of the library in the central city of the SMSA. A preliminary letter was not sent to the remaining libraries in the SMSA; the questionnaire was sent to them without prior explanation, but the covering letter described the nature of the study, and in asking them to fill out the form, the importance of their participation in the study was stressed. Each of the persons contacted responded and accepted the invitation to be part of the study.

Prior to the field visits, certain materials were sent to the libraries. The questionnaires for the director and the member libraries were sent ahead with the request that the forms be filled in by the time the investigator visited the library. The ten reference questions were sent to the reference librarian with the note that the investigator wanted to collect the completed answers during the field visit to the library. The interview schedules were sent ahead to the directors of the systems and the librarians of the member libraries to allow them to prepare their answers before the interview if they desired.

When the investigator arrived at the library, appointments were confirmed and additional appointments were made. As nearly as possible, interviews with the director of the system were scheduled first, and after that, in no particular order, interviews with the librarians of the member libraries.

After the interviews, the investigator checked the libraries' periodical holdings against the list of periodical titles and the list of American history titles through the card catalog.

Interviews with the nine directors of the systems and 21 heads of member libraries were obtained during the field visits. The interviews were conducted according to the schedules sent to the interviewees, and they were tape recorded to insure accurate recording of the information. When the investigator returned from the field, the interviews were transcribed on cards, with the response to each question put on a separate card to facilitate evaluation and scaling.

The responses of the directors of the systems were separated from the responses of the heads of the member libraries; within the two groups, all the responses for each question were put together. All the responses to each question were examined at one time, and a rating scale was established for each question. Separate scales were needed for responses from the directors and for responses from the member libraries because the perspectives of the answers varied. The rating scales are presented in appendices E-G along with the interview schedules.

Data collected with the two checklists were assembled and scored. For the first list (periodical titles held) scoring was simply a matter of counting the number of titles held by the library. In comparing the libraries' holdings against the checklist, no attempt was made to determine the run of the titles; only the presence or absence of a title was noted. A score was given to each library by allowing one point for each title held; the highest possible score was 157.

For the second checklist (the 100 American history titles), two points were given for each title held. A weighting factor was used to recognize older editions and partial holdings of multiple volume sets. When a title with an earlier date of publication was held, it was checked to determine if it was a revised edition or a reprint. The titles in question were checked in the card catalog of the University of Illinois Library and the printed catalog of the Library of Congress. In the scoring, one point was given for earlier editions of a given title or for holding incomplete parts of a multi-part work. The highest possible score was 200.

The set of ten reference questions which constituted the performance test was used to collect data about the quality of reference service given by the libraries in the subsample. Since there were several equally correct sources where the answers for the questions could be found, the sources given were checked for accuracy in the University of Illinois Library. Two points were given for each correct source, and one point was given if the source was correct but the wrong page was specified. The highest possible score was 20 points.

Questionnaires sent by mail to all the libraries in the sample collected the final group of data for the study. One hundred percent response was the goal, but it was not attained after two follow-up letters had been sent. The total response was 92 percent, a relatively high rate of return. The response is shown in Table 1. The three consolidated systems had 100 percent response, but only one

TABLE 1

QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE RATE

Library System	Questionnaires Sent, Number	Questionnaires Returned	
		Number	Percent
	Consolidated Systems		
Evansville and Vanderburgh County	9	9	100
Charlotte and Mecklenburg County	15	15	100
Tulsa City-County	20	20	100
	Cooperative Systems		
Illinois Valley	28	27	96
Onondaga	22	17	77
San Joaquin Valley	5	5	100
	Nonsystem Libraries		
New Haven SMSA	13	11	84
Omaha SMSA	8	8	100
Wichita SMSA	18	15	83
ALL SYSTEMS	138	127	92

cooperative and one nonsystem library had 100 percent response. The perfect response rate of the consolidated systems is an indication of the centralization of authority in the system. Although the members of the consolidated system supplied some of the data on the questionnaires, the central library provided most of the information requested. All the questionnaires received were used. In some cases all the questions were not answered, but those questions for which there were responses were used.

References to Chapter II

[1] Abraham Kaplan, The Conduct of Inquiry: Methodology for Behavioral Science (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1964), p. 263.

[2] Hubert M. Blalock, Jr., Social Statistics (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960), pp. 285-292.

[3] Ibid., pp. 242-244.

[4] Ibid , pp. 144-147.

[5] Nelson Associates, Public Library Systems in the United States: A Survey of Multijurisdictional Systems (Chicago: American Library Association, 1969), pp. 2-3.

[6] The definition of an SMSA includes two elements; first, there must be a city of at least 50,000 population to serve as a central city and to identify the county in which it is located as the central county. The second element is the identification of economic and social relationships with contiguous counties which are metropolitan in character. (U. S. Bureau of the Budget, Office of Statistical Standards, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, 1967 [Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967], p. 1).

[7] John E. Wiltz, Books in American History: A Basic List for High Schools (Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Press, 1964), pp. 141-143.

[8] New York (State) University, State Education Department, Division of Evaluation, Emerging Library Systems: The 1963-1966 Evaluation of the New York State Public Library System (Albany: 1967), p. 3.

[9] Herbert Goldhor, A Plan for the Development of Public Library Service in the Minneapolis-Saint Paul Metropolitan Area (St. Paul: Minnesota Department of Education, Library Division, 1967), p. 28.

CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION OF THE LIBRARY SYSTEMS

This chapter contains a brief sketch of each of the six systems and the three nonsystem libraries that form the sample for this study. The history of the system, the size of its service area, the number of member libraries it contains, other library resources in the area, and comments pertaining specifically to the systems are included in the descriptions. The common characteristics of the nine systems are then presented and discussed.

Consolidated Systems

Public Library of Charlotte and Mecklenburg County

Although 1903 is the date recognized as the official beginning of the Public Library of Charlotte and Mecklenburg County, the origin of the Library goes back to the nineteenth century when the Charlotte Literary and Library Association was incorporated in 1891. When the library was transferred to the school commissioners in 1901, it became known as the Charlotte Public School Library. Two years later, in 1903, when the library became the Charlotte Carnegie Public Library, Andrew Carnegie gave the city $20,000 for a Free Library building, provided that the city met certain conditions. Later Carnegie increased the gift to $25,000.[1]

The library began to offer service to all the residents of Mecklenburg County in 1929, and within two years it had branches in the five towns in the county and a number of stations in the public schools. The units of the library began operating as a consolidated system in 1940 when the present director, Hoyt Galvin, assumed the position of librarian. In 1944 a survey of the library was made under the sponsorship of the American Library Association. One of the recommendations of the survey was that the county-wide service of the library be recognized, and in 1945 the name was changed officially to the Public Library of Charlotte and Mecklenburg County.

In December, 1952, a bond issue was passed for a new library building. The old Carnegie building was razed, and a new building was erected on the same site. The new building was occupied November, 1956.[2] At the present time, 14 branches, in addition to the Central Library, constitute the service units of the system (Table 2).

TABLE 2

HOLDINGS OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY OF CHARLOTTE AND MECKLENBURG COUNTY

Library Unit	Volumes Held
Central Library	431,881
Branches:	
Cornelius	8,200
Davidson	8,900
Derita	1,500
East	14,200
Huntersville	8,000
Matthews[a]	8,200
Mint Hill	1,200
North	6,800
Northwest	
Piedmont Courts	4,500
Pineville	7,500
Sharon[a]	10,000
South	14,100
West	14,000

[a] Library included in sample of member libraries.

Source: American Library Directory. 25th ed. New York: R. R. Bowker, 1967, p. 813.

The system provides service to 341,000 persons in Mecklenburg County (which covers 542 square miles). The service does not cover the entire Charlotte SMSA. The population of Union County is a small portion (14.1 percent or 44,670 persons) of the total population of the SMSA. The gross assessed valuation of property subject to local general property taxation in the city of Charlotte was $907,812,000 for 1966.[3] The median years of school completed by the residents of Mecklenburg County was 11.6 years for 1960.[4]

Excluding special libraries, the following other libraries are located in Charlotte: Central Piedmont Community College Library; King's College Library; Queen's College Library; Johnson C. Smith University Library; and the University of North Carolina at Charlotte Library.[5]

Evansville and Vanderburgh County Public Library

The Evansville and Vanderburgh County Public Library was founded in 1912 as the Evansville Public Library. In the first few years of its existence, it served only the city of Evansville, but in 1919 the city library was merged with the county library to extend service to all of Vanderburgh County. By this action, a consolidated library system was formed. According to the most recent figures available, the system serves a population of 168,000 (Special Census, 1966). The director of the system, Edward A. Howard, has held the position since 1962.

The nine libraries which make up the system provide service to all the residents of Vanderburgh County. Table 3 shows the nine libraries and their holdings. The system does

TABLE 3

HOLDINGS OF THE EVANSVILLE AND VANDERBURGH COUNTY PUBLIC LIBRARY

Library Unit	Volumes Held
Central Library	359,781
Branches:	
Cedar Hall	6,700
East	20,000
Glenwood	8,500
Harper	6,000
Howell	9,500
McCollough[a]	21,754
North	12,500
West	18,000

[a] Library included in sample of member libraries.

Source: American Library Directory. 25th ed. New York: R. R. Bowker, 1967, p. 313.

not provide service to the entire Evansville SMSA since the SMSA includes two counties in addition to Vanderburgh County: Warrick County, Indiana, and Henderson County, Kentucky. Of the three counties making up the SMSA, Vanderburgh is the largest, containing almost three-quarters of the total population (74.5 percent or 165,794 persons) and 241 square miles. Warrick County has 10.6 percent (or 23,577 persons) and Henderson County 14.9 percent (or 33,159 persons) of the SMSA. Since one of the counties is in Kentucky, the SMSA is bi-state in nature, but the system does not offer service across the state line.

The gross assessed valuation of property subject to local general property taxation in Evansville was $223,825,000 for 1966.[6] The median years of school completed by the residents of Vanderburgh County was 10.2 years for 1960.[7] In Evansville additional library resources are available in the libraries of Indiana State University, Evansville campus; University of Evansville; and Willard Library.[8]

There is a strong sense of system structure in the Evansville and Vanderburgh County Public Library, and the central library and nine member libraries operate as a tightly integrated unit. Formal procedures have been established for trying and evaluating new procedures before adopting them throughout the system. In May, 1965, the library joined a teletype network that connects it with 25 large public and college libraries in Indiana. Experimental in nature, the project is sponsored by the State Library using federal funds to encourage interlibrary cooperation and borrowing.[9]

Tulsa City-County Library System

Established in 1913, the City Library of Tulsa served only the city for almost half a century; in 1962 the service area was extended to include the county, and the Library became the Tulsa City-County Library System. Since the formation of the System, great progress has been made in expanding the service of the library, and development, expansion, and improvement of staff, buildings, collections, and services have taken place. The present director, Allie Beth Martin, has been director of the System since its inception in 1962.

According to the most recent figures, the Library serves a population of 412,000 with a system of 18 branch libraries. The libraries and their holdings are listed in Table 4. The service area of the Library does not cover the

TABLE 4

HOLDINGS OF THE TULSA CITY-COUNTY LIBRARY SYSTEM

Library Unit	Volumes Held
Central Library	449,322
Branches:	
Bixby Public Library[a]	4,674
Broken Arrow Public Library	5,128
Brookside	12,291
Collinsville Public Library	
East Second	13,579
Florence Park	17,372
Jenks Public Library	5,043
Nathan Hale[a]	12,417
North Harvard Public Library	8,186
Owasso Public Library	4,654
Page Memorial (Sand Springs, Okla.)	3,998
Prattville Public Library	4,463
Red Fork	11,222
Seminole Hills	
Sheridan	15,904
Skiatook Public Library	4,247
Suburban Acres	10,072
Woodland View	7,332

[a] Library included in sample of member libraries.

Source: American Library Directory. 25th ed. New York: R. R. Bowker, 1967, p. 901.

entire Tulsa SMSA but only Tulsa County, which contains 82.6 percent of the population of the SMSA and 572 square miles. Two other counties, Creek County and Osage County, are included in the SMSA. Their combined population contributes only 17.4 percent of the total population, but part of the city of Tulsa is in Osage County and the Library does not offer service to those persons. In some cases, Tulsa residents living in Osage County are closer to the Library than those living in Tulsa County.

The Central Library building was occupied July 1, 1965. The contemporary design of the building is noteworthy for the manner in which it combines beauty, efficiency, and economy. The gross assessed valuation of property subject to local general property taxation in Tulsa was $408,157,000 for 1966.[10] The median years of school completed by the residents of Tulsa County was 12.1 years for 1960.[11] Two university libraries in Tulsa, Oral Roberts University Library and the University of Tulsa Library, provide additional library resources.[12]

Centralization of system services has improved the efficiency of the entire system operation. One of the system services is the computer-produced book catalog which replaces the card catalog of the System. The book catalog of book holdings lists all the system holdings and their locations. Tulsa City-County Library System is one of the first public library systems to adopt a book catalog.[13]

The organization of the system is being modified by the establishment of regional centers. The branch libraries will be under the supervision of the regional centers, which in turn will be directed by the Central Library.

Cooperative Systems

Illinois Valley Library System

Although the Illinois Valley Library System was established in 1966, the central library upon which the system is built, the Peoria Public Library, was founded in 1880. The System is fortunate to have the resources of this library, which is the largest public library book collection in downstate Illinois.[14] The director of the System, William Bryan, who is also librarian of the Peoria Public Library, has held the position since the inception of the system and has been director of the Peoria Public Library since 1955. In three other Illinois systems the director of the central library also serves as the director of the system, but the administrative structure of the Illinois Valley Library System is unique in that the system services and staff are completely merged with those of the Peoria Public Library staff. For services rendered and use of the collections and facilities, the System pays the Public Library a fixed sum.[16]

According to the statistics supplied by the System, a population of 348,694 is served by the 27 members of the System. Libraries and their holdings are given in Table 5. All of the three counties included in the Peoria SMSA

TABLE 5

HOLDINGS OF THE ILLINOIS VALLEY LIBRARY SYSTEM

Library Unit		Volumes Held
Central Library		338,110
Branches:		
Lincoln	18,382	
McClure	15,318	
Prospect	9,544	
South Side	9,524	
West Bluff	13,590	
Wilcox Branch & Extension Dept.	18,744	
Member Libraries:		
Bradford Public Library		5,958
Buda--Mason Memorial Library		5,383
Chillicothe Township Free Library		11,725
Creve Coeur Public Library		14,464
Delavan--Ayer Public Library		13,000
East Peoria--Fond du Lac Township Library[a]		22,475
Eureka Public Library		11,615
Galva Township Public Library		16,444
Henry Public Library		11,227
Kenwanee Public Library[a]		62,713
Lacon Public Library		13,069
La Fayette--Ira C. Reed Public Library		3,081
Mackinaw Township Library		7,906
Marquette Heights Public Library		3,565
Metamora--Illinois Prarie District Library[a]		47,552
Minier Public Library		3,272
Morton Public Library		18,576
Neponset Public Library		14,785
Pekin Public Library[a]		43,819
Peoria Heights Public Library		19,075
Princeville--Lillie M. Evans Memorial Library		8,757
South Pekin Public Library		3,412
Toulon Public Library		8,291
Tremont--Esther Washburn Public Library		5,988
Washington Public Library		13,852
Wyoming Public Library		9,812

[a] Library included in sample of member libraries.

Source: American Library Directory. 25th ed. New York: R. R. Bowker, 1967.

(Peoria, Tazewell, and Woodford Counties) are served by the System; in addition, four more counties not included in the SMSA are served (all of Stark County and parts of Bureau, Henry, and Marshall Counties). There are 2,529.9 square miles in the service area of the System.

The new central building for the Peoria Public Library was occupied in December, 1967, and officially dedicated March, 1968. The gross assessed valuation of property subject to local general property taxation in Peoria was $542,361,000 for 1966.[17] The median years of school completed by the residents of the seven counties in the Illinois Valley Library System (Peoria, Tazewell, Woodford, Stark, Bureau, Henry, and Marshall Counties) was 10.7 years for 1960.[18] Other library resources are available in Peoria, but most of them are not included in this summary because they are in special libraries. The libraries of Bradley University and the Illinois Central College (the city's new two-year college) are other library resources in Peoria.[19]

The existence of a successful cooperative enterprise (the Illinois Valley Film Cooperative) in the Peoria area created a climate that facilitated the development of the System. Since a previous cooperative enterprise had been successful, area librarians were favorably disposed to try another form of cooperation. Also, lines of communication had been established and were functional.

The Pere Marquette Librarians' Association is an organization of the librarians whose libraries belong to the Illinois Valley Library System. The Association is independent of the System, providing a means for the member libraries to express their opinions and make suggestions about system services.

Onondaga Library System

Established in 1962, the Onondaga Library System was the last public library system formed in New York State. The System was chartered in November, 1961, and became operative in April, 1962. The cooperation of the Syracuse Public Library, which serves as the central library of the System, was responsible in large part for the rapidity with which the System was made functional.[20] The members of the Technical Processing Department of the Syracuse Public Library became System employees and processed books for both the Library and the System. Reid Hoey is director of the System and has held that position since the founding of the System.

Henry McCormick, director of the Syracuse Public Library, which serves as the central library of the System, has held that position since 1962.

The System serves a total of 481,041 persons (Interim Census, 1965/67) in Onondaga County through 21 member libraries. The member libraries and their holdings are given in Table 6. Although the System does not serve the entire Syracuse SMSA, it serves three quarters of the population. The population of the other two counties in the SMSA, Madison and Oswego, constitute the remaining one quarter of the population. By contract with the North Country Library System, the Onondaga Library System provides service to 33,178 persons in Oswego County. There are 1,917 square miles included in the service area.

The headquarters of the System is housed in a remodeled bank building several blocks from the Syracuse Public Library. Most of the system activities are carried out in the headquarters building, but some operations, such as processing and reference service, are handled for the System by the Syracuse Public Library. Telephone service within Onondaga County is toll-free, facilitating communication among the member libraries and between them and the System.

The gross assessed valuation of property subject to local general property taxation in Syracuse was $414,346,000 for 1966.[21] The median years of school completed by the residents of Onondaga County was 11.7 years for 1960.[22] Excluding the resources of the special libraries, there is a great wealth of library resources in Syracuse. The libraries of five colleges and universities are available: LeMoyne College; Maria Regina College; Onondaga Community College; State University of New York, College of Forestry at Syracuse; State University of New York, Upstate Medical Center; and Syracuse University.[23]

San Joaquin Valley Library System

The history of the San Joaquin Valley Library System begins with its founding in 1964, but the strength of its central library (the Fresno County Free Library) upon which the system is built has been developing since 1909. The administrative structure of the San Joaquin Valley Library System is similar to that of the Illinois Valley Library System in that the director of the System also serves as the director of the central library. Alice Reilly, present director, has been director of the System since its founding

TABLE 6

HOLDINGS OF THE ONONDAGA LIBRARY SYSTEM

Library Unit		Volumes Held
Onondaga Library System		20,940
Member Libraries:		
Baldwinsville Library Association		11,859
Brewerton Free Library		4,205
Camillus--Maxwell Memorial Library		15,581
Cicero Free Library		4,532
Dewitt Community Library Association		10,288
East Syracuse Free Library		9,063
Elbridge Free Library		6,981
Fairmont Community Library		8,235
Fayetteville Free Library[a]		17,714
Jordan Free Library		6,651
LaFayette Public Library		11,946
Liverpool Public Library		16,795
Manlius--Fayetteville-Manlius Library		11,645
Marcellus Free Library		12,769
Mattydale--Saline Free Library		8,240
Minoa Free Library		8,059
North Syracuse Free Library		10,756
Onondaga Hill--Onondaga Free Library		5,254
Solvay Public Library[a]		18,896
Syracuse Public Library[a]		589,731
Branches:		
Beauchamp	24,026	
Betts	17,135	
Elmwood	10,297	
Hazard	12,879	
Mundy	9,915	
Paine	21,237	
Petit	21,718	
Soule	12,662	
White	17,199	
Tully Free Library		4,888

[a] Library included in sample of member libraries.

Source: New York (State) Library, Division of Library Development. Public and Association Libraries; Statistics/1965. Albany, 1965, p. 16.

and director of the Fresno County Free Library, the central library of the System, since 1960.

The System serves a total of 550,794 persons (California Statistical Abstract, 1967) with five member libraries, four of which have branches. The libraries and their holdings are given in Table 7. The System provides service to more than the Fresno SMSA (which contains only Fresno County) because it serves Fresno, Kings, and Madera Counties. The service area of the System contains 9,509 square miles.

The gross assessed valuation of property subject to local general property taxation in Fresno is $234,267,000 for 1966.[24] The median years of school completed by the residents of the three counties in the San Joaquin Valley Library System (Fresno, Kings, and Madera counties) is 9.7 years for 1960.[25] In Fresno there are four colleges and seminary libraries that offer additional resources: Fresno City College; Fresno State College; Mennonite Brethern Biblical Seminary; and Pacific College.[26]

Preparation for system organization was provided by the establishment of the San Joaquin Valley Information Service. Made possible by LSCA funds, the Service began in May, 1960, and was highly successful.[27] When planning for the System was begun in the fall of 1962, much of the preliminary work done for the Information Service could be used, and planning money for the System was used to prepare plans for system services and eventually to evaluate the System before the two-year planning grant expired.[28]

The continuance of the Information Service as part of the System was a top priority in the organization of the System. Centralized processing had a high priority, and instead of setting up a separate processing center, arrangements were made for the Fresno County Free Library to order and process books for the member libraries. A teletype network was set up in the five libraries to facilitate the rapid location of materials, the transmission of reference questions, and administrative communication.[29]

Nonsystem Libraries

New Haven SMSA and the New Haven Free Public Library

The New Haven SMSA encompasses part of New Haven County and contains ten towns in addition to the central city of New Haven. Each of the towns in the SMSA has a public library, and two towns (Branford and North Branford) have

TABLE 7

SAN JOAQUIN VALLEY LIBRARY SYSTEM

Library Unit		Volumes Held
Fresno County Free Library		522,751
Branches:		
Clovis	14,904	
Fig Garden	15,048	
Gillis	16,757	
North Fresno	22,851	
Reedley	16,122	
Sanger	14,577	
Selma	20,353	
Sunnyside	15,853	
Member Libraries:		
Coalinga Unified School District Library		48,508
Branch:		
Huron	6,285	
Hanford Public Library		61,328
Kings County Library[a]		78,000
Branches:		
Armona	7,500	
Avenal	7,200	
Corcoran	9,000	
Lemoore	10,500	
Madera County Free Library[a]		79,658
Branch:		
Chowchilla	11,676	

[a] Library included in sample of member libraries.

Source: American Library Directory. 25th ed. New York: R. R. Bowker, 1967.

two public libraries each. In the SMSA, there are 13 public libraries. The libraries and their holdings are given in Table 8.

The library of the central city, the New Haven Free Public Library, was established in 1886. Meredith Bloss has been librarian since 1959. With the central library and seven branches, the library serves the City of New Haven

TABLE 8

LIBRARIES AND HOLDINGS IN THE NEW HAVEN SMSA

Library Unit		Volumes Held
New Haven Free Public Library		396,216
Branches:		
John Davenport	---	
Fair Haven	---	
Nathan Hale	---	
Library Neighborhood Center	---	
Donald G. Mitchell	---	
Willis G. Stetson	---	
Wooster Square	---	
Bethany--Clark Memorial Library		8,588
Branford--James Blackstone Memorial Library[a]		39,104
Branford--Willoughby Wallace Memorial Library		8,442
East Haven--Hagaman Memorial Library		25,653
Guilford Free Library		22,551
Hamden Library[a]		103,686
Branches:		
Community	27,439	
Miller Memorial	30,943	
Mount Carmel	20,027	
State Street	7,032	
Whitneyville	18,245	
North Branford--Atwater Memorial Library		5,914
North Branford--Edward Smith Library		6,170
North Haven Memorial Library		23,413
Orange Public Library		11,415
West Haven Public Library[a]		79,150
Branches:		
Allington	16,626	
West Shore	13,439	
Woodbridge Town Library (Clark Memorial)		18,138

[a] Library included in sample.

Source: American Library Directory. 25th ed. New York: R. R. Bowker, 1967.

with its population of 152,048 which constitutes almost one-half (47.4 percent) of the population of the SMSA. The Hamden Library, second largest library in the SMSA, serves 12.8 percent of the population, and the West Haven Public Library, third in size, serves 13.4 percent of the population.

Several state-wide cooperative ventures are in the planning stage in Connecticut. One is a plan for library service on a coordinated, state-wide basis; since the area of the state is small, the plan calls for the entire state to be treated as a system.[30] A regional reference service is also under consideration. A proposal has been submitted for the establishment of the South Central Film Cooperative which is to be a central pool type of operation rather than circuit. Membership will be primarily for the public libraries in the south central area of the state.[31]

The gross assessed valuation of property subject to local general property taxation in New Haven was $594,655,000 for 1966.[32] The median number of school years completed by the residents of New Haven County was 10.8 years for 1960.[33] Extensive library resources are available in New Haven exclusive of special libraries. There are three college libraries (Albertus Magnus College, Berkeley Divinity School, and Southern Connecticut State College) besides Yale University Library. Although the public libraries do not make very much use of the resources of the Yale University Library, the materials are there if they are needed.[34]

Omaha SMSA and the Omaha Public Library

Three counties are included in the Omaha SMSA. Douglas and Sarpy Counties are in Nebraska, and Pottawattamie County is in Iowa, making the SMSA bi-state in nature. In the SMSA, there are eight public libraries. The libraries and their holdings are given in Table 9. The Omaha Public Library was founded in 1877. Frank Gibson has been director of the Library since 1957. With its six branches, the Library serves a population of 374,000 (Chamber of Commerce estimate).

In addition to serving the city of Omaha, the public library is providing service to all residents of Douglas County for the two-year period, July 1, 1967-June 30, 1969. The extension of service is a demonstration project supported by LSCA funds under the terms of an agreement with the Nebraska State Library Commission. It is anticipated that service will be continued at the end of the demonstration

TABLE 9

LIBRARIES AND HOLDINGS IN THE OMAHA SMSA

Library Unit		Volumes Held
Omaha Public Library		369,950
Branches:		
Benson	29,381	
Florence	9,119	
North	26,202	
South	33,570	
Swanson	41,799	
Willa Cather	46,926	
Avoca (Iowa) Public Library		6,515
Bellevue Public Library		12,323
Council Bluffs (Iowa) Free Public Library[a]		98,486
Millard Public Library		3,512
Oakland, Iowa--Eckels Memorial Library		9,316
Ralston Public Library[a]		9,108
Valley Public Library		4,163

[a] Library included in sample of member libraries.

Source: American Library Directory. 25th ed. New York: R. R. Bowker, 1967.

period with funds from Douglas County. Also, with the support of federal funds, the Library acts as an interlibrary loan center for all the public libraries in Nebraska. A TWX network throughout Nebraska is part of this project.[35]

The demonstration project has introduced some system-like services which have promoted cooperation in the SMSA, and this situation has presented some difficulty in using the Omaha SMSA as a nonsystem library in this study. For two reasons, the presence of the demonstration project was not considered too disturbing a factor to prevent the use of the SMSA. First, the demonstration project makes direct service available to only one of the three counties (Douglas County) in the SMSA; Sarpy and Pottawattamie Counties, whose populations constitute one quarter of the total population of the SMSA, receive no service as a result of the project. Second, since the SMSA is bi-state in nature and therefore it might be expected that there would be cooperation across the state line, the amount of limited cooperation that exists on an informal basis does not appear to have been affected by the demonstration project.

The gross assessed valuation of property subject to local general property taxation in Omaha was $798,552,000 for 1966.[36] The median years of school completed by the residents of the three counties that make up the Omaha SMSA (Douglas, Sarpy, and Pottawattamie Counties) was 11.9 years for 1960.[37] In Omaha library resources (exclusive of special libraries) in addition to the public library and its branches are six college and university libraries: College of St. Mary, Creighton University, Grace Bible Institute, University of Nebraska College of Medicine, and the University of Nebraska at Omaha.

Wichita SMSA and Wichita Public Library

In the Wichita SMSA, there are two counties (Sedgwick and Butler), and 90 percent of the total population is concentrated in Sedgwick County, which contains the city of Wichita. The Wichita Public Library was founded in 1870 and the present director, Ford Rockwell, has held the position since 1948. With a network of five branches, the Wichita Public Library serves a population of 281,169 (Chamber of Commerce estimate). Recently the Library eliminated its nonresident fees and now offers free library service to any resident of the State. There are 17 public libraries in the SMSA. The list of the libraries and their holdings is shown in Table 10.

Several cooperative programs are underway in the state of Kansas. Of paramount importance is the projected structure of regional libraries in the State. Seven multicounty regions, each with a central library, have been designated to serve as a basis for system organization. The Wichita SMSA is included in the South Central Kansas Library System, whose central library is the Hutchinson Public Library. Although the Wichita Public Library is the largest in the South Central Library System, it was not made the central library because, at the time of planning, the Library was constructing a new building. The regional systems did not become operative until January 1, 1969, but there were some demonstration projects before that time.

In September, 1965, the Kansas Information Circuit, a teletype network linking six of the largest public libraries in Kansas, was initiated. Known as KIC, the system makes the book and periodical holdings in all the public libraries

TABLE 10

LIBRARIES AND HOLDINGS IN THE WICHITA SMSA

Library Unit		Volumes Held
Wichita City Library		247,728
Branches:		
Boulevard	25,000	
Minisa	15,000	
Oliver Square	25,000	
Seneca	15,000	
Westlink	9,000	
Andover--Fred Wilson Public Library		3,336
Augusta Public Library		20,000
Benton Community Library		1,775
Cheney Public Library		3,304
Clearwater Public Library		3,025
Colwich City Township Library		2,500
Derby Public Library		9,521
Douglass--Copeland Memorial Library		14,720
El Dorado--Bradford Memorial Library[a]		24,501
Leon Public Library		2,417
Mount Hope Public Library		8,010
Mulvane Public Library		11,807
Newton Free Public Library[a]		40,855
Potwin Public Library		not available
Towanda Public Library		2,550
Valley Center Public Library		3,000
Whitewater City Library		3,838

[a] Library included in sample of member libraries.

Source: Kansas, State Library. Public Library Statistics. 1966. Topeka: 1966.

in the state quickly available. KIC has served a useful function in the development of the regional systems because, while the systems are building their resources, KIC provides the state-wide bibliographic access necessary to utilize the existing resources to the fullest extent.[39]

The cooperative programs described above have introduced some system-like services in the Wichita area, and their existence has presented some difficulty in using Wichita as a nonsystem library in this study. The regional systems did not become fully operative until January 1, 1969, and this was several months after the data for this study had been collected. It was decided that the developing systems did not interfere too much, and the Wichita SMSA is used as a nonsystem area.

Construction of the new central library was begun in May, 1965, and by the end of the year the work had passed the half-way mark. The building was opened to the public March, 1967.[40] The gross assessed valuation of property subject to local general property taxation in Wichita was $473,967,000 in 1966.[41] The median school years completed by the residents of the two counties that make up the Wichita SMSA (Sedgwick and Butler Counties) was 11.8 years for 1960.[42] Other library resources in Wichita are contained in three college and university libraries: Friends University, Sacred Heart College, and Wichita State University.[43]

History of the Systems

A summary of the information about the history of the systems is shown in Table 11. The mean age of the consolidated systems is greater than that of the cooperative systems. The present directors of the three cooperative systems have held that position since the founding of the system, yet the directors of the cooperative systems have a shorter tenure than the directors of consolidated systems because those systems were founded much more recently than the consolidated systems.

The directors of the central libraries of the cooperative systems, however, have held their positions for a mean of nine years. In two systems (Illinois Valley and San Joaquin Valley), the director of the central library is also the director of the system; in the Onondaga Library System, the director of the central library (Syracuse Public Library) is not the director of the System. Thus, it may be seen that the tenure of the directors of the consolidated and cooperative systems are more nearly comparable than it would appear at first sight. The directors of the central libraries of the nonsystem libraries have held their positions for a mean of 12.6 years.

In this sample, the central libraries of the nonsystem SMSA's are older than the central libraries of the cooperative systems and the consolidated systems. The central libraries of each of the three different groups of systems are well-established and provide a strong central resource.

TABLE 11

HISTORY OF SIX LIBRARY SYSTEMS AND THREE NONSYSTEM LIBRARIES (IN YEARS), 1968

Library System	Age of Central Library	Age of System	Librarian's Tenure as System Head
Consolidated Systems			
Charlotte & Mecklenburg County	63	28	28
Evansville & Vanderburgh County	56	49	6
Tulsa City-County	55	6	5
Cooperative Systems			
Illinois Valley	88	2	2
Onondaga	55	6	6.5
San Joaquin Valley	59	4	4.5
Nonsystem Libraries			
New Haven	82		
Omaha	91		
Wichita	98		

The relationship of the central library to the system is the same for the three consolidated systems. The operation of the system is handled through the central library, and all authority is centralized there. For the three cooperative systems, the relationship has different patterns. In the Onondaga Library System, the headquarters of the system is separate from the central library and there is a director for each operation. For the Illinois Valley and the San Joaquin Valley Library Systems, the director of the central library also serves as the director of the system. Also, the system facilities are housed in the same building and the services are merged with those of the central library.

Library Service

The service extended by the systems may be considered first in terms of the number of square miles in the service areas. The mean number of square miles served by the cooperative systems (4,319) is almost ten times as great as the mean number served by the consolidated systems (452). The greater area of the cooperative systems increases the difficulty of providing service. The number of square miles contained in the service areas of the systems is shown in Table 12.

TABLE 12

SIZE OF SERVICE AREA OF SIX SYSTEMS, 1967/68

Library System	Square Miles in Service Area
Consolidated Systems	
Charlotte & Mecklenburg County	542
Evansville and Vanderburgh County	241
Tulsa City-County	572
Cooperative Systems	
Illinois Valley	2,530
Onondaga	917
San Joaquin Valley	9,509

Closely related to the size of the service area is the number of persons served by the system. The cooperative systems serve a greater number of persons (mean = 460,394) than the consolidated systems (mean = 307,000), as shown in Table 13. The libraries in the central cities of the SMSA's serve a mean of 391,689 persons. The populations served were grouped according to the administrative structure of the system and tested with the analysis of variance. The resulting F ratio, 1.72 with 2 and 6 degrees of freedom, was not significant at the .05 level, indicating that the population served by the nine library systems is approximately the same.

TABLE 13

POPULATION SERVED BY SIX SYSTEMS AND THREE NONSYSTEM LIBRARIES, 1967/68

Library System	Number of Persons Served
Consolidated Systems	
Charlotte & Mecklenburg County	341,000
Evansville & Vanderburgh County	168,000
Tulsa City-County	412,000
Cooperative Systems	
Illinois Valley	348,694
Onondaga	481,041
San Joaquin Valley	550,794
Nonsystem Libraries	
New Haven SMSA	370,910
Omaha SMSA	466,478
Wichita SMSA	337,679

The cooperative systems serve a greater percentage of their respective SMSA's than the consolidated systems, as may be seen in Table 14. Two cooperative systems (Illinois Valley and San Joaquin Valley Library Systems) have service areas that extend beyond the SMSA, but none of the consolidated systems serves the entire SMSA.

The median school years completed by the persons served by the six systems and the three nonsystems, as shown in Table 15, were examined. For the country as a whole, the median school years completed by persons 14 years old and over is 11.8 years, as reported in 1967. It may be seen that one system (Tulsa City-County Library System) and two nonsystem libraries (Omaha SMSA and Wichita SMSA) equal or exceed the median years of school completed by the population of the country as a whole. When the data were grouped by administrative structure of the system and the analysis of

TABLE 14

POPULATION OF SMSA SERVED BY SIX SYSTEMS (1960 CENSUS)

Library System	Total Population of SMSA	Population Served by System	Percent of Population of SMSA Served
Consolidated Systems			
Charlotte & Mecklenburg County	316,781	272,111	85.8
Evansville & Vanderburgh County	222,890	168,000	75.3
Tulsa City-County	418,974	346,038	82.5
Cooperative Systems			
Illinois Valley	313,412	348,694	111.2
Onondaga	563,781	481,041	85.3
San Joaquin Valley	365,945	550,794	150.5

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Budget, Office of Statistical Standards. Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1967.

variance was calculated, the resulting F ratio, .66 with 2 and 6 degrees of freedom, was not significant at the .05 level. This result indicates that the level of education of the population served by the nine library systems (as measured by the median number of school years completed) is approximately the same.

Library Resources

The resources of the systems are related to the service that they are able to offer. In terms of the mean number of volumes held by the central library, the cooperative systems have almost twice as many volumes (438,281) as the consolidated systems (220,274). The difference is not so

TABLE 15

MEDIAN SCHOOL YEARS COMPLETED BY POPULATION SERVED BY SIX SYSTEMS AND THREE NONSYSTEM LIBRARIES, 1967

Library System	Median School Years Completed
For all persons 14 years old and over	11.8[a]
Consolidated Systems	
Charlotte & Mecklenburg County	11.6
Evansville & Vanderburgh County	10.2
Tulsa City-County	12.1
Cooperative Systems	
Illinois Valley	10.7
Onondaga	11.7
San Joaquin Valley	9.7
Nonsystem Libraries	
New Haven SMSA	10.8
Omaha SMSA	11.9
Wichita SMSA	11.8

[a] From U. S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports: Population Characteristics--Educational Attainment, March, 1967* (Series P-20, No. 169) (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1968).

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census. *County and City Data Book, 1967*. (A Statistical Abstract Supplement) Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

great between the cooperative systems and the nonsystem libraries. When the differences among the three groups of systems were tested with the analysis of variance, the resulting F ratio, 3.17 with 2 and 6 degrees of freedom, was not significant at the .05 level, indicating that the differences could have occurred by chance or sampling variability.

The total volumes held by all the libraries in the system are shown in Table 16. The consolidated systems have fewer volumes (1,180,960 volumes) than the cooperative systems (2,131,118 volumes) or the nonsystem libraries (1,749,178). The difference among the three groups was tested with the analysis of variance; the resulting F ratio, 2.88 with 2 and 6 degrees of freedom is not significant at the .05 level, indicating that the total holdings of the systems are approximately the same.

TABLE 16

VOLUMES HELD BY THE NINE CENTRAL LIBRARIES AND THE SIX SYSTEMS AND THREE NONSYSTEM LIBRARIES, 1967/68

Library System	Volumes Held by Central Library	Volumes Held by System
Consolidated Systems		
Charlotte & Mecklenburg County	243,863	293,849
Evansville & Vanderburgh County	170,327	446,447
Tulsa City-County	246,632	440,664
Cooperative Systems		
Illinois Valley	340,149	754,792
Onondaga	357,866	535,771
San Joaquin Valley	616,929	840,555
Nonsystem Libraries		
New Haven	437,920	811,093
Omaha	401,779	559,714
Wichita	257,655	378,371

The total operating expenditures of the six systems are presented in Table 17. The mean of the total operating expenditures ($916,427) for the consolidated systems is greater than that for the cooperative systems ($649,012). The operating expenditures of the consolidated systems are

TABLE 17

TOTAL OPERATING EXPENDITURES FOR SIX SYSTEMS, 1967/68

Library System	Operating Expenditures (in dollars)
Consolidated Systems	
Charlotte & Mecklenburg County	773,190
Evansville & Vanderburgh County	594,734
Tulsa City-County	1,384,357
Cooperative Systems	
Illinois Valley	232,850
Onondaga	344,795
San Joaquin Valley	1,369,391

administered by the central library, but in the cooperative systems each member library has its own budget and administers it.

Considered in relation to the operating expenditures of the systems is the total assessed valuation of the property for the central cities of the nine SMSA's (Table 18). The data are grouped by system structure and the analysis of variance was calculated; the resulting F ratio, .649 with 2 and 6 degrees of freedom, was not significant at the .05 level, indicating that the central cities in the nine cases have about the same amount of assessed valuation of property.

Summary

The descriptive variables discussed in this chapter serve also as possible alternative explanations for the differences that are found in the dependent variable (the level of service offered by the member libraries). The tenure of the director of the system is the first variable considered, and it is presented as a partial possible explanation because a director who has worked with the system longer is more familiar with the needs and problems of the system. The directors of the systems have held their positions approximately the same lengths of time.

TABLE 18

ASSESSED VALUATION OF PROPERTY FOR CENTRAL CITIES OF THE NINE SMSA'S, 1967

Central City	Total Assessed Value Subject to Tax after Deduction of Exemptions (In Thousands of Dollars)
Charlotte, North Carolina	907,812
Evansville, Indiana	223,825
Tulsa, Oklahoma	408,157
Peoria, Illinois	542,361
Syracuse, New York	414,346
Fresno, California	234,267
New Haven, Connecticut	594,655
Omaha, Nebraska	798,552
Wichita, Kansas	473,967

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census Census of Governments, 1967. Vol. 2: Taxable Property Values. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1968.

The size of the population served by the system is presented as a second possible partial cause of a differing level of service given by the member libraries in the systems, but it was found that the populations served by the six systems and the three nonsystems are approximately the same.

The number of volumes held by the central library and the system as a whole is the third possible alternative explanation for the differences in the level of service offered by the three types of systems. Presumably if the central library has more volumes and the member libraries of the system can borrow from them, the member libraries will be able to offer a higher level of service because they have access to more extensive resources. Also, if the total holdings of the system are greater, the member libraries will be able to offer a higher level of service because more extensive resources are available. The number of volumes held by the nine central libraries and the nine systems as a whole are approximately the same.

The assessed valuation of property is considered as the fourth possible explanation for the differences in the levels of service offered by the member libraries. If the assessed valuation is higher, more money may be available for library services and a higher level of service will be possible regardless of the administrative structure of the system. When the assessed valuations were tested, they were found to differ no more than they would by chance alone, indicating that the nine systems are approximately the same in this respect.

The median number of years of school completed is the final possible explanation for differing levels of service offered by the member libraries. It is generally recognized that persons with more education use library facilities more than those with less education. Presumably persons who use the library more would require a higher level of service than those who use it only occasionally. When the median number of school years completed were grouped by the administrative structure of the systems, the differences were found to be no greater than would have occurred by chance or sampling variability. The educational level of the population served by the nine systems is about the same.

The five possible explanations for the differences in the level of service offered by the member libraries of the systems are not tenable because the systems are approximately the same in all five areas. Another possible cause for the differences in the levels of service must be considered. The benefits systems offer to their member libraries is the possible explanation that will be investigated.

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[24] U.S. Bureau of the Census, Census of Governments, p. 82.

[25] U.S. Bureau of the Census, County and City Data Book, p. 33.

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CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE ANALYSIS

Pearson product moment correlations (designated as r) were calculated for the measures serving as indicators of the level of service offered by the member libraries (the dependent variable) and the administrative structures of the systems (the independent variable). Analysis of variance was used to test the significance of the difference among the indicators of the quality of the collections of the libraries in the subsample. The Student t-tests were computed for the measures serving as indicators of the system benefits (the causal factor) and the administrative structure of the systems (the independent variable). The results of these three groups of tests are presented and discussed in this chapter.

Measures of Association

Pearson product moment correlations were computed in order to relate systematically the 54 measures of the level of service with the three types of administrative structure of the public library systems. The responses were not complete for each of the 54 measures, and correlations were calculated only for the data that were available. The correlation coefficients along with the size of the sample are presented in Appendix H. Only the measures of the level of service that have correlations significant at the .05 level are discussed below.

The correlations of the number of hours the library is open per week with the three administrative structures show that the consolidated systems have the highest value (.248), indicating that the libraries in the consolidated systems are open more hours per week than the nonsystem libraries and cooperative systems. Since the libraries in the consolidated systems are open more hours per week, their services are more accessible to the user. The greater access to the service is indicative of a higher level of service, and in this respect, it may be said that the consolidated systems offer a higher level of service than the other two groups.

When circulation is correlated with the three types of administrative structure, it may be seen that the consolidated systems have the largest correlations (Table 19). The relationship holds for the type of borrower (children and adults) and during the last three fiscal years. Both the nonsystem libraries and the cooperative systems have negative correlations with the measure; the results show relatively less circulation in these two groups of libraries. The cooperative systems have a larger negative correlation, meaning that they circulate relatively fewer books than the nonsystem libraries. In this study, circulation serves as an indicator of the amount of use of a library's resources. It is assumed that good resources are used more than those that are not good, and the quality of resources serves as a measure of the level of service offered by the library. On this basis, it may be said that the consolidated systems offer a higher level of service than the nonsystem libraries or the cooperative systems.

TABLE 19

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR CIRCULATION AND TYPE OF ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

Circulation	Consolidated Systems (r)	Cooperative Systems (r)	Nonsystem Libraries (r)
Children, 1967/68 (N = 72)	.709*	-.215	-.023
Adults, 1967/68 (N = 72)	.402*	-.094	-.041
Total, 1967/68 (N = 78)	.641*	-.193	-.060
Children, 1966/67 (N = 71)	.721*	-.237*	-.006
Adults, 1966/67 (N = 71)	.408*	-.094	-.044
Total, 1966/67 (N = 78)	.652*	-.200	-.056
Children, 1965/66 (N = 67)	.732*	-.246	-.009
Adults, 1965/66 (N = 67)	.377*	-.092	-.040
Total, 1965/66 (N = 78)	.658*	-.198	-.056

*Significant at .05 level.

The measure of the amount of financial resources (operating expenditures) has a large correlation with the consolidated systems, as exhibited in Table 20. The relationship appears for all parts of the operating expenditures examined (books and other library materials, personnel, other expenses, and total operating expenditures) and during the last three fiscal years. This relationship indicates that the consolidated systems expend more money for the categories specified, and since they have more money to spend on services, they are able to offer a higher level of service than libraries that have less money to spend.

TABLE 20

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR OPERATING EXPENSES AND TYPE OF ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

Operating Expense	Consolidated Systems (r)	Cooperative Systems (r)	Nonsystem Libraries (r)
Books, etc., 67/68 (N = 79)	.506*	-.146	-.053
Personnel, 67/68 (N = 80)	.517*	-.134	-.068
Other, 67/68 (N = 76)	.671*	-.204	-.163
TOTAL, 67/68 (N = 85)	.562*	-.135	-.077
Books, etc., 66/67 (N = 76)	.518*	-.167	-.039
Personnel, 66/67 (N = 77)	.514*	-.121	-.083
Other, 66/67 (N = 74)	.608*	-.133	-.112
TOTAL, 66/67 (N = 85)	.545*	-.124	-.082
Books, etc., 65/66 (N = 74)	.425*	-.149	-.021
Personnel, 65/66 (N = 75)	.521*	-.109	-.099
Other, 65/66 (N = 71)	.658*	-.192	-.079
TOTAL, 65/66 (N = 80)	.542*	-.123	-.087

*Significant at .05 level.

Both the nonsystem libraries and the cooperative systems have negative correlations with the amount of financial resources, indicating that they have smaller operating expenditures than the consolidated systems. Since the cooperative systems have a larger negative correlation, it may be said that they spend relatively less than the nonsystem libraries, and since the amount of financial resources available affects the level of service offered, it may be said that the cooperative systems offer relatively the lowest level of service of the three types of library systems, as based on this measure.

The measure "books may be returned to any library in the system" has a high correlation with the cooperative systems (.550). Members of cooperative systems permit books to be returned to any library in the system regardless of where they were borrowed. Allowing books to be returned to any member library in the system makes the service more convenient to the user, and the greater convenience of use may be considered a higher level of service. The nonsystem libraries show a large negative correlation (-.629) with the measure "books may be returned to any library," indicating that there is relatively less provision for returning books to any library other than the one from which they were borrowed. The service is less convenient to the user, and therefore it may be considered of a lower level.

Provision for loans between libraries shows a small amount of correlation with the consolidated and cooperative libraries indicating that they are approximately the same in this respect. Both provide for loans between the member libraries in the system. In the case of the nonsystem libraries, there is a large negative correlation (-.310) with the measure, meaning that the nonsystem libraries do not provide for loans between the independent local libraries in the SMSA. This points to a lower level of service because the resources in the nonsystem libraries are less accessible to all the users in the area than they are in the system libraries.

Two measures serve as indicators of the periodical resources--the number of periodical titles currently received and the number of periodical titles kept five years or more. For the first measure, there are large correlations with each of the three types of system structure, and the largest correlation is with the nonsystem libraries (-.781). This result indicates that the nonsystem libraries in this sample receive relatively fewer periodical titles than the two groups of system libraries. The cooperative systems have a high correlation (.594) with the measure, as do the consolidated systems (.528). These results indicate that of the two groups, the cooperative systems currently receive the greater number of periodical titles. The presence of periodical titles in the collections adds to the resources available to the user and these greater resources contribute to the higher level of service offered by the library.

With the periodical titles kept five years or more, the largest correlation is again with the nonsystem libraries (-.707). This result indicates that the nonsystem libraries keep fewer of their periodical titles five years or more. The two groups of systems have large correlations with the measure (cooperative, .563, and consolidated, .460), indicating that they keep relatively more back issues of periodical titles than the nonsystem libraries. Holdings of back issues of periodicals increase the resources of the collections and the greater resources allow a higher level of service to be offered.

Thus, both measures serving as indicators of the periodical resources indicate that the two groups of system libraries have relatively more of these resources than the nonsystem libraries. On the basis of these results, it may be said that the system libraries are able to offer a higher level of service than the nonsystem libraries because they have more periodical resources.

A measure of the nonbook resources, number of recordings held at the end of the last fiscal year (1967/68), shows a high correlation with the cooperative systems (.731), indicating the presence of a larger number of recordings in the collections of the cooperative systems than in the collections of the consolidated systems or the nonsystem libraries. The measure has a large negative correlation with the nonsystem libraries (-.650). From this result, it may be said that the nonsystem libraries have relatively fewer recordings in their collections than the libraries that belong to systems. The presence of nonbook materials (in this case, recordings) enriches the resources of the library and in this way permits the library to offer a higher level of service. Since the cooperative systems show a large relationship with this measure, it may be said that they offer a relatively high level of service with respect to the number of recordings they make available to their users.

Three measures concerning staff--part-time staff members who are graduates of a four-year college and have less than one year of library school, all other part-time staff, and total part-time staff--were used. The first measure, part-time staff members who are graduates of a four-year college and have less than one year of library school, shows the greatest amount of association with the cooperative systems (.178). From this result, it appears that the cooperative systems have relatively more part-time staff members with these educational qualifications than the nonsystem libraries or the consolidated systems. The consolidated systems have a negative association (-.158) with the measure, showing that they have relatively fewer part-time staff members with these qualifications.

In the model of public library systems, it was stated that the level of education of the staff members will affect the level of service offered by the member libraries. Staff with more education (four years of college and library school training) will be able to offer a higher level of service than those without this background. To the extent that the staff members of the cooperative systems have attained a higher level of education, it may be said that they are able to offer a higher level of service. Another part of the measure is the amount of time the staff members spend on the job (i.e., full-time or part-time). The model specifies that full-time staff members will be able to offer a higher level of service than part-time staff members because they have more time to familiarize themselves with the problems of the job and their presence more hours during the week lends a continuity to the service. Since this measure combines part-time staff with educational qualifications, the effect on the level of service is modified.

The second measure, all other part-time staff, refers to the part-time staff members who do not have a college background or library school training. The measure has a relatively strong association with cooperative systems (.202), indicating the presence of such part-time staff members. Since this measure indicates staff with relatively less education, it cannot be interpreted as a factor that improves the level of service offered by the member library. Also, since the amount of time worked is only part-time, there is even less positive effect on the level of service. The result of this measure suggests that the cooperative systems might offer a lower level of service because of the lack of education of the staff and their part-time status. The measure has a strong negative association (-.253) with the consolidated systems, indicating that these systems have relatively fewer staff members without college and library school training. It may be that the absence of such personnel contributes to a higher level of service in the consolidated systems.

The third measure, total part-time staff, has a large correlation with the cooperative systems (.200); this result indicates that the cooperative systems have relatively more part-time staff members than the nonsystem libraries or the consolidated systems. It is assumed that full-time staff members will be able to offer a higher level of service because they are on the job more hours during the week. This correlation thus does not add evidence that the cooperative systems offer a higher level of service. The measure has a negative correlation with the consolidated systems (-.293), indicating the absence of part-time staff members in the consolidated systems. It may be that the absence of part-time personnel contributes to a higher level of service in the consolidated systems.

An examination of the results of the correlation analysis of the 54 measures of the level of service and the three types of administrative structures of systems indicates that in most respects the libraries in the three types of systems are similar because the correlation coefficients are small. Of the measures that show significance at the .05 level, cooperative systems show a higher level of service in about as many measures as the consolidated systems. It appears that on the basis of these results, the administrative structure has less effect on the level of service of the member libraries than was expected.

Three measures (number of hours the library is open per week, circulation, and operating expenditures) indicate that the consolidated systems offer a higher level of service. The measures for circulation and operating expenditures have several different parts and results from three successive years; the weight of these measures tends to indicate that the consolidated systems offer a higher level of service.

Three measures of nonbook resources (number of periodical titles received, number of periodical titles kept five years or more, and the number of recordings held in the collection at the end of the last fiscal year) indicate that the holdings of the cooperative systems exceed those of the consolidated systems. These three measures have a large negative correlation with the nonsystem libraries, indicating a relative lack of nonbook resources in the libraries that do not belong to systems.

A fourth measure (books may be returned to any library) has a high correlation with the cooperative systems, indicating that the libraries in cooperative systems make more provision for convenience of use by the reader. There is a large negative correlation with the nonsystem libraries, indicating the relative lack of such a service in these libraries.

The results of the three measures of staff show the largest correlations with the cooperative systems, but these results indicate a relatively high proportion of part-time staff, which may well be detrimental rather than beneficial to service.

Tests of Significance

Tests of significance were calculated for two groups of data collected from the subsample of the 30 libraries. One group, in-depth indicators of the quality of the collections of the sampled libraries, serves as measures of the level of service; the other group consists of measures of the benefits systems offer their member libraries.

Analysis of variance was calculated for the first group of data to determine if there were greater differences among the systems than could be accounted for by chance alone. Student's t-tests were calculated for the three possible pairs of administrative structures (consolidated and cooperative, consolidated and nonsystem, and cooperative and nonsystem) for each measure in the data from the directors and for each measure in the data from the member libraries.

Quality of Collections

Data collected for the subsample of 30 libraries include three measures that serve as indicators of the quality of the collection. Two measures indicated the resources of the collections in two different areas: periodical titles held and holdings in one subject area (American history). One measure serves as an indicator of the level of reference service. The data were analyzed on the basis of systems. Analysis of variance was used to determine if there were differences in the grouped data that were greater than would occur by chance alone; .05 was the critical level selected.

The data for the periodical holdings and the American history titles held were put into three groups according to the administrative structure of the system (Table 21). When analysis of variance was performed on the grouped data for the periodical holdings, the resulting F ratio (3.76 with 2 and 6 degrees of freedom) was not significant at the .05 level. When analysis of variance was calculated for the grouped data for the American history titles held, the resulting F ratio (2.82 with 2 and 6 degrees of freedom) was not significant at the .05 level. The results of these tests indicate that the holdings of the libraries in this sample are approximately the same, and differences among the three groups are no greater than would occur by chance alone.

TABLE 21

TITLES HELD BY 30 SAMPLED LIBRARIES IN THE NINE SYSTEMS

Library Systems	Periodical Titles[a]	American History Titles[b]
Consolidated Systems		
Charlotte & Mecklenburg Co.	217	258
Evansville & Vanderburgh Co.	192	208
Tulsa City-County	209	165
Cooperative Systems		
Illinois Valley	388	419
Onondaga	253	225
San Joaquin Valley	331	357
Nonsystem Libraries		
New Haven & SMSA	390	470
Omaha & SMSA	266	347
Wichita & SMSA	268	279

[a] F = 3.76, df = 2 and 6, p = .25.

[b] F = 2.82, df = 2 and 6, p = .25.

The performance scores on the set of ten reference questions were grouped by library system and the systems in turn were grouped according to their administrative structure. The total scores for the systems are shown in Table 22. Analysis of variance was performed on the scores and the F ratio (.33 with 2 and 6 degrees of freedom) was not significant at the .05 level. On the basis of the results of this test of performance, it may be said that the three groups of systems in this sample offer reference service of about the same quality and the differences that may exist can be accounted for by chance or sampling variability.

TABLE 22

SCORES FOR REFERENCE QUESTIONS ANSWERED BY 30
SAMPLED LIBRARIES IN THE NINE SYSTEMS

Library Systems	Score on Questions Answered[a]
Consolidated Systems	
Charlotte & Mecklenburg County	38
Evansville & Vanderburgh Co.	22
Tulsa City-County	46
	106
Cooperative Systems	
Illinois Valley	60
Onondaga	48
San Joaquin Valley	47
	155
Nonsystem Libraries	
New Haven & SMSA	64
Omaha & SMSA	44
Wichita & SMSA	45
	153

[a] F = .33, df = 2 and 6.

The results of the analysis of variance indicate that in terms of these three measures, the libraries in the three groups of systems are approximately the same. The libraries have about the same number of periodical titles and titles on the American history checklist, and they perform in about the same way in answering the reference questions. The type of administrative structure of the system does not appear to affect the quality of the collections in the sampled libraries.

System Benefits

Data for the indicators of system benefits were put into two groups, data from the directors of the systems and data from the member libraries of the systems, to permit separate analysis since some of the measures differed slightly in the two groups. Within each of the two large groups, the data were sorted further into three categories according to the administrative structure of the systems.

For each measure in the two groups of data, t-tests were calculated for the three possible pairs of administrative structures (consolidated and cooperative systems, consolidated and nonsystem libraries, and cooperative and nonsystem libraries). A one-tailed test was used, and .10 was set as the critical level. In the analysis of the data from the directors of the systems, six of the twelve measures had statistically significant t-values; and in the analysis of the data from the member libraries of the systems, nine of the twelve measures had statistically significant t-values.

It may be observed that some measures from the data for the member libraries have significant t-statistics, but the corresponding measures in the data from the directors of the systems do not have significant t-statistics. Three of the nonsignificant measures in the data from the directors fall in this category: (1) encouragement given to try new procedures, (2) role of reference service in the total program of service, and (3) treatment of reference questions that cannot be answered. On the basis of these results, it may be inferred that the directors of the nine systems in the sample all encourage use of new procedures to approximately the same extent, attach about the same relative importance to reference service in the total program of service, and treat reference questions that cannot be answered from the resources in the library with about the same procedures.

The other three measures with nonsignificant differences apply only to the directors of the systems. Two of them are related to the method for getting feedback about system services and the use that is made of it in planning. The final nonsignificant measure is concerned with the availability of a system of rapid communication. These three nonsignificant t-statistics indicate that all the directors of the systems have about the same methods of getting feedback, use it in roughly the same manner in planning, and have nearly equivalent systems of rapid communication.

The statistically significant t-values grouped by the three possible combinations according to the administrative structure of the systems for the data from the directors are shown in Table 23. On the basis of these results, it may be stated that the consolidated systems in this sample have more extensive in-service training programs than the libraries that do not belong to systems. A further and closely related result is that both the consolidated and cooperative systems in the sample have more extensive evaluations of the in-service training programs than the libraries that do not belong to systems.

TABLE 23

VARIABLES WITH SIGNIFICANT t-STATISTICS
INDICATORS OF SYSTEM BENEFITS
(Directors)

Variable	t-statistic	df	Significance Level with One-tail Test
Consolidated and Cooperative Systems			
Have in-service training programs	2.00	4	.10
Use of non-library resources to answer reference questions	1.73	4	.10
Offer other personnel services	2.00	4	.10
Consolidated Systems and Nonsystem Libraries			
Have in-service training programs	1.73	4	.10
Evaluation of in-service training programs	1.73	4	.10
Role of system in selection of materials	7.00	4	.005
Use of nonlibrary resources to answer reference questions	2.00	4	.10
Maintain a union list of holdings for the system	5.00	4	.005
Cooperative Systems and Nonsystem Libraries			
Have in-service training programs	7.00	4	.005
Evaluation of in-service training programs	2.00	4	.10
Role of system in selection of materials	4.00	4	.01

In-service training programs raise the level of service of the member libraries indirectly by increasing the participants' knowledge of library procedures which in turn allows them to give better service. Thus, the branches of the consolidated systems are able to offer a higher level of service, in part because the system offers more in-service training programs.

Related to the end effects of the in-service training programs are the other personnel services offered by the systems. It is assumed that the greater the number of other personnel services the systems offer, the more effectively the staff members of the branch libraries will be able to function, and this will result in their being able to provide a higher level of service. The consolidated systems in this sample offer a greater range of personnel services than the cooperative systems.

The central libraries of the consolidated systems in this sample maintain union lists of system holdings more than the nonsystem libraries. It may be assumed that the availability of information about system-wide holdings makes a higher level of service possible because materials held by the branches can be located quickly. This in turn enables the branch libraries to offer a higher level of service because they can secure the materials requested by patrons when they do not have them in their own agency.

The consolidated systems in this sample make more extensive use of nonlibrary resources to answer reference questions than do the cooperative systems or the libraries that do not belong to systems. The consolidated systems are able to offer a higher level of reference service because they go beyond their own resources if necessary to answer patrons' questions.

The central libraries of both the consolidated and cooperative systems in this sample play a greater role in the selection of library materials than the central libraries of the nonsystems. Probably this result is due to the almost complete lack of effort to coordinate the selection of materials for the collections of the independent libraries in the SMSA's, *i.e.*, the libraries that do not belong to systems.

In the analysis of the data from the member libraries of the systems, three measures do not have significant *t*-statistics: the use of nonlibrary resources to answer reference questions, the role of reference service in the total program of service, and the role the member libraries play in making system policy. For these three measures, the differences among the three groups of systems can be accounted for by chance or sampling variability.

The measures with statistically significant t-values in the analysis of the data from the member libraries are shown in Table 24. On the basis of the first measure, it may be said for this sample that the system plays a greater and more formalized role in the selection of materials in the consolidated systems than in the cooperative systems. The system plays a larger role in the selection of materials in both the consolidated and cooperative systems than the central libraries in the SMSA's do for the independent libraries in the nonsystem areas. It is assumed that the greater the participation by the system in the selection of materials the higher will be the quality of the resulting collection because of the professional skill applied to the selection. The availability of a better collection of materials usually will make possible a higher level of service.

From the results of the analysis of access to a collection of recordings, it may be observed that both the branches of the consolidated systems and the members of cooperative systems in this sample have greater access to collections of recordings and borrow from them more than do the independent libraries in the SMSA's where there is no system structure. It is assumed that access to larger collections and to nonbook resources permits the branch libraries to offer a higher level of service because they will be able to satisfy more of their patrons' requests.

The t-statistics of four other measures indicate that there is a difference greater than can be accounted for by chance alone between the branches of the consolidated systems and the members of the cooperative systems in this sample. Branches of the consolidated systems are actively encouraged to try new procedures. Advice from the professional staff members is available in the sytem headquarters to aid them in trying new procedures. It is thought that branch libraries that are encouraged to try new procedures are more likely to offer service of a higher level.

Branches of the consolidated systems in this sample have more types of communication within the system than the members of the cooperative systems. Provision of several means of communication is necessary if the member library is to play an active part in the system and especially in the formation of system policy. When there is adequate communication, members of a system can be expected to offer

TABLE 24

VARIABLES WITH SIGNIFICANT t-STATISTICS INDICATORS OF SYSTEM BENEFITS (Member Libraries)

Variable	t-statistic	df	Significance Level with One-tail Test
Consolidated and Cooperative Systems			
Role of system in selection of library materials	5.17	12	.10
Encouraged to try new procedures	1.36	12	.10
Different types of communication	2.90	12	.01
Method of hiring personnel	2.18	12	.025
Have access to a larger collection	2.79	12	.01
Consolidated Systems and Nonsystem Libraries			
Role of system in selection of library materials	16.16	10	.0005
Have access to a collection of recordings	1.70	10	.10
Attended in-service training programs	1.65	10	.10
Treatment of reference questions that cannot be answered	5.89	10	.0005
Cooperative Systems and Nonsystem Libraries			
Role of system in selection of library materials	4.01	14	.005
Have access to a collection of recordings	4.93	14	.0005
Attended in-service training programs	2.76	14	.01
Treatment of reference questions that cannot be answered	6.06	14	.0005
Have access to a collection of films	2.76	14	.01

a higher level of service because they are able to ask for help or seek materials they do not have.

In this sample, the central library of the consolidated system plays a larger part in the hiring of staff members than the system headquarters of the cooperative system. In the consolidated systems, a personnel officer on the central library staff recruits applicants for positions and the branch librarian interviews them and makes the final decision about hiring them. The headquarters of the cooperative system generally has no part in the hiring of personnel for the member libraries; rather, the local librarian and the board secure candidates for the position and make the final choice. This system benefit affects the level of service offered by the member libraries because the central library has greater resources with which to attract better candidates for available positions. Presumably better personnel will be able to offer a higher level of service.

Branches of the consolidated systems in this sample have access to larger collections of materials than the libraries that do not belong to systems. The branches of the consolidated systems borrow more from the larger collections of materials and on a regular basis. Members of the cooperative systems do not borrow from the larger collections of materials as much or as regularly as the branches of the consolidated systems. The members of the cooperative systems have greater access to a film collection and use it more than do the libraries that do not belong to systems. It is thought that they are able to offer a higher level of service to their patrons because the system makes greater and more varied resources available for them to borrow.

For two measures (attended in-service training programs and treatment of reference questions that cannot be answered) both the branches of the consolidated systems and the members of the cooperative systems are significantly different from the libraries that do not belong to systems. The _t_-statistic from the first measure indicates that staff members from the branches of the consolidated systems and from the members of cooperative systems in this sample attended more in-service training programs than the staff members of libraries that do not belong to systems. Since these staff members have the advantage of additional training, presumably they are able to offer better service than the staff members of the libraries that have had no training.

The results of the _t_-tests for the measure "treatment of reference questions that cannot be answered" indicate that both the branches of the consolidated systems and the member libraries of the cooperative systems in this sample do more to answer reference questions for which they lack the necessary information in their own resources than the libraries that do not belong to systems. In many cases the branches and the members have a regular procedure for referring the question to the reference department of the central library or the system headquarters where there are staff members with special training and more extensive reference resources.

The _t_-statistic for access to a collection of recordings indicates that the members of the consolidated systems in this sample have greater access to film collections than nonsystem libraries. Since these member libraries have access to more extensive nonbook resources, it may be assumed that they offer a higher level of service than the nonsystem libraries.

The results of the analysis of benefits systems offer to their members show that six of the twelve measures in the data from the directors indicate that the consolidated systems provide more benefits than the cooperative systems and the nonsystem libraries. The results of the tests of the data from the members of the systems show that eight of the twelve measures indicate that the consolidated systems offer more benefits than the cooperative systems or the nonsystem libraries. These measures give some support to the hypothesis that the consolidated systems offer more benefits to their member libraries than the cooperative systems or the nonsystem libraries.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The objective of this study has been to investigate the relationship between the type of administrative structure of public library systems and the level of service offered by the member libraries of the system. A case study was the research design selected for the investigation, and a sample of nine public library systems was chosen. The sample included three consolidated systems, three cooperative systems, and libraries in three SMSA's with no system structure. The nonsystem libraries were included as a control.

Administrative structure of the systems is the independent variable in the study. The level of service offered by the member libraries is the dependent variable, and 54 measures serve as indicators of this variable. The benefits systems offer to the member libraries is the causal factor, and twelve measures serve as indicators of the causal factor. Data for the variables were collected by questionnaires, checklists, and interviews conducted by the investigator during field visits to the nine library systems.

The data collected were analyzed and the results were used to test the two statements of the hypothesis: public libraries that are members of systems will offer a higher level of service than public libraries that do not belong to systems because of the benefits systems offer to their members, and public libraries that belong to consolidated systems will give a higher level of service than libraries that belong to cooperative systems or libraries that do not belong to systems because of the greater number of benefits the consolidated systems offer to their branches.

Summary of the Findings

1. Branches of the consolidated systems are open a greater number of hours per week than the nonsystem libraries or the members of cooperative systems.

2. Greater use is made of the materials in the consolidated systems than in the nonsystem libraries and the cooperative systems, as indicated by the number of books circulated during the last three fiscal years.

3. Consolidated systems spend more money for books and other library materials, pay more in salaries for personnel, and have greater total expenditures than the libraries that do not belong to systems or that belong to the cooperative systems.

4. Cooperative systems allow books to be returned to any library in the system, regardless of where it was borrowed; on the other hand, nonsystem libraries require that the book be returned to the library from which it was borrowed.

5. The libraries in the cooperative systems hold a greater number of nonbook resources, specifically periodical titles and recordings, in their collections than do the branches of the consolidated systems or the libraries that do not belong to systems.

6. The cooperative systems have more part-time staff members than the nonsystem libraries and the consolidated libraries.

7. More in-service training programs are offered by consolidated systems, and the staff members from the branch libraries attend more of the programs than is the case for the cooperative systems. Also, the consolidated systems have a more formalized evaluation of the in-service training programs.

8. Both consolidated and cooperative systems play a significant role in the selection of materials for the member libraries. The central libraries of the systems prepare lists of recommended titles from which the members make their selections.

9. The branches of consolidated systems and the members of cooperative systems have access to collections of nonbook materials from which they can borrow. The branches of the consolidated systems make more extensive and regular use of this resource than the members of the cooperative systems.

10. When branches of consolidated systems and members of cooperative systems get reference questions they cannot answer, they have a regular procedure for referring the question to the reference department of the central library. The libraries that do not belong to systems do not follow such a procedure.

11. In both the consolidated and cooperative systems, the central libraries and the headquarters libraries play active roles in the selection of materials by the branches

and member libraries. The role played by the headquarters library in the cooperative system is primarily advisory in nature. The branches of the consolidated systems are generally required to make their selections from a list of recommended titles prepared by the central library.

12. The central library of the consolidated system plays a greater role in the selection of staff members for the branches than does the headquarters library of the cooperative system.

13. The branches of the consolidated systems have more types of communication within the system and are encouraged to try new procedures in their operations more than the members of the cooperative systems.

14. Branches of consolidated systems have access to the extensive resources of the central library and borrow from them regularly. The collections of recordings available to the branches of the consolidated systems greatly increase the resources they are able to offer to their patrons.

15. The three indicators of the quality of the collections (number of periodical titles and American history titles held, and the test of performance in the reference service area) indicated that the libraries in the sample were approximately the same quality in terms of these three indicators. When the three groups of systems were tested, the differences among them were no greater than would have occurred by chance.

16. The population served by the systems and the non-systems was tested as a possible cause for the differences found in the levels of service. Areas with a larger population have a greater tax base upon which to draw, and this might make a difference in the level of service the member libraries are able to offer. When the population for the three groups of systems was tested, the differences among them were no greater than would have occurred by chance alone.

17. The length of time the director of the system has held his present position was suggested as a possible alternative cause for the differences in the levels of service given by the member libraries. The longer a director has been with the system, presumably the better acquainted he is with its needs and problems and this knowledgeability will contribute to the central library's being able to help the member libraries offer a higher level of service. The

directors' tenure of the three groups of systems was tested, and the differences were not statistically significant, indicating that the tenure of the directors is approximately the same.

18. The assessed valuation of property subject to local general property taxation was considered as a reasonable alternative causal factor. The presence of more money might make it possible for the system to offer a higher level of service regardless of the administrative structure they have. The assessed valuation for the three groups of systems was tested and the results were not statistically significant, indicating that the three groups of systems were approximately the same.

19. The level of education of the population was considered as an alternative causal factor to explain the differences in the levels of service offered by the three groups of systems. The generally accepted fact that persons with more education make greater use of public library facilities adds to the credibility of this alternative causal factor. When the level of education of the population of the nine systems was tested, the differences among the three groups of systems were not statistically significant, indicating that the three groups of systems have about the same level of education.

20. The number of volumes held by the central library of the system was considered to be a possible alternative explanation for the differences in the levels of service offered by the member libraries. Presumably the greater the holdings of the central library, the more it will be able to supplement the holdings of the member libraries, which enables them to offer a higher level of service. When the number of volumes held by the central libraries of the systems in the three groups was tested, the differences were found to be no greater than would occur by chance alone. Thus, the holdings of the central libraries may be considered to be approximately the same.

21. The total number of volumes held by all the libraries in the system was suggested as a possible alternative explanation for the differences in the level of service offered by the member libraries. If more books are available in the system as a whole, presumably the member libraries will be able to offer a higher level of service because more resources are available to them. The total volumes held by the systems were grouped by the three types of administrative structure and the differences tested. The differences were no greater than would have happened by chance alone; thus, the total holdings of the systems are about the same.

Limitations

1. Systems in the sample were not chosen by random means and only a small number were selected. Conclusions from the study, therefore, can be applied only to the library systems in this sample.

2. Only representative indicators of the dependent variable (the level of service offered by the member libraries) and the causal factor (benefits systems offer member libraries) have been used. The conclusions must be drawn on the basis of these indicators only; generalizations to all aspects of the dependent variable and the causal factor are not permitted.

3. No data reflecting attitudes have been used. Indicators of level of service and system benefits are objective data.

Conclusions

As a result of this study, it is concluded that in terms of the measures used, the type of administrative structure of public library system does not affect to the extent predicted the level of service offered by the member libraries of the nine public library systems included in this study.

Although all the measures do not indicate that the consolidated systems offer a higher level of service, as had been expected, three important measures--number of hours the library is open per week, circulation, and operating expenditures--show that the consolidated systems clearly offer a higher level of service.

The first measure, number of hours the library is open per week, is noteworthy because a large number of responses were received for it, indicating that the consolidated systems are open relatively more hours per week than either of the other two groups. In the consolidated systems, the central library and the branches are administered as a single unit. Since policy making is centralized, the branch libraries have more nearly similar hours of opening than the member libraries of the cooperative systems where each member library decides the hours it will be open. The greater number of hours the consolidated systems are open per week makes their services more accessible, and greater accessibility contributes to a higher level of service.

The two measures, circulation and operating expenditures, are meaningful for two reasons: (1) there are a large number of responses for both, and (2) each measure is made up of several different parts and each part has responses for the last three fiscal years. The consolidated systems have a greater association with each part of the two measures for the last three years, a pattern clearly indicating that the consolidated systems offer a higher level of service in these respects.

The greater circulation of materials by the consolidated systems may be the result of the benefit (aid in book selection) the consolidated systems offer to their branches. The central libraries of the consolidated systems play an important role in the book selection procedures of the branches; the professional help they offer in the selection procedure contributes to the building of collections of higher quality than would be possible if the librarians of the branches did not have this help. It is suggested that the resulting collections are of higher quality, as reflected by the greater use of the materials in these collections, and this in turn means that the consolidated systems offer a higher level of service.

As a contrast, in the cooperative systems, aid in book selection is offered to the member libraries, but it is advisory in nature, and the libraries may use it or not, as they choose. On the basis of the amount of use of the resources, it would appear that this procedure is not so effective in building the quality of the collections as that of the consolidated systems.

The branches of the consolidated systems have access to the more extensive resources of the central library, and they borrow from these collections regularly. By making greater resources available to their patrons, the branches are able to provide a higher level of service, evidence of which may be seen in the greater use of the resources.

Systems offer two benefits relating to personnel which may be partially responsible for the higher level of service offered by the consolidated systems. The aid the system offers in selecting personnel for positions is the first benefit. In the consolidated systems, the personnel office of the central library secures candidates for positions in the branches, but the headquarters libraries of the cooperative systems do not help their member libraries secure candidates. With its greater resources, the central library of the system, it is thought, will be able to attract personnel with better qualifications than the branch libraries alone. The presence of better qualified personnel may contribute to a higher level of service being offered by the consolidated systems, as reflected in the greater circulation of materials by the consolidated systems.

Another conclusion may be drawn on the basis of this study; there is evidence that the libraries that belong to public library systems offer a higher level of service than the libraries that do not belong to systems, because the nonsystem libraries do not show the highest level of service in any of the measures used in the study. For two measures (periodical titles received and periodical titles kept five or more years) both the cooperative and the consolidated systems show a much stronger association than the nonsystem libraries. The nonsystem libraries show a large negative association with the measures, indicating the relatively fewer holdings of these nonbook resources which are an important part of offering a higher level of service.

Finally, it may be concluded that the results of the analysis of the benefits systems offer to their member libraries tend to show that the consolidated systems offer more services to their branches than the cooperative systems or the libraries that do not belong to systems. Reasonable alternative causes for explaining the differences in the measures were examined and found to be less tenable than the benefits systems offer to their member libraries.

Suggestions for Further Research

The present study, as noted earlier, is exploratory in nature and, as such, it must be considered as only one of a series of studies in this area. The purpose of the study has been to investigate the relationship between the type of administrative structure of library systems and its effect on the level of service the member libraries give. The study suggests a number of areas where further investigation is needed to examine the nature of the different relationships.

The first suggestion for further research is to use the present study as a guide for planning a study using a larger sample (N = 30 or more systems). The systems included in the sample should be drawn from the universe by a random process. The measuring instruments used in the study should be refined, and greater control of the variables should be attempted. The data collected should be of interval level measure to permit the use of statistical tests (such as correlation analysis) to measure the association between the variables.

A second general area for further research would be to use different indicators for the dependent variable and the causal factor. In this study, public services have been used as indicators of the dependent variable; in the suggested study, the level of service could be measured in terms of the technical services provided to the member libraries by the system. Centralized processing provided by the central or headquarters library is an example of a technical service that could be tested.

In this study, the benefits systems offer to their member libraries have served as the causal factor. There are several other causal factors that might be investigated. The centralization of authority in the administrative structure of the system is suggested as a causal factor to investigate. The effectiveness of the director of the system working within the limits of the administrative structure of the system is suggested as another possible causal factor.

A third general area for further research would be to expand the scope of the study to include systems in different sized metropolitan areas and in different geographical sections of the country. Public library systems in larger metropolitan areas could be studied to see if a relationship exists in systems that serve substantially larger populations. Also, systems in rural areas with sparse populations could be studied to see if the relationship exists there. If a relationship is found to exist in both the larger metropolitan areas and the less populous rural areas, evidence is added to support the hypothesis.

Since public library systems developed somewhat differently in different sections of the country, studies could be designed to concentrate on specific geographical areas, such as the Eastern Seaboard, the South, the Midwest, and the West. If the relationship is found to be true in systems in different geographical areas, further evidence is added to the hypothesis.

A fourth general area suggested for further research is a more thorough investigation of the administrative structures of the systems. In the present study, the administrative structure was accepted by definition and was not tested. In addition to the consolidated and cooperative forms of systems used in this study, federated systems should be added to the group of administrative structures studied.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRES SENT TO CONSOLIDATED SYSTEMS
DIRECTORS OF SYSTEMS
BRANCH LIBRARIES
PUBLIC LIBRARY SYSTEMS STUDY

Your name ____________________ Position ________________

Number of years you have held the present position _______

Year the library was established ______ Year system was established ______

Please indicate the limits of the fiscal year you use:

________ _____, 1967 - ________ _____, 1968.
month day month day

SERVICE AREA

1. Please indicate the population legally served by the library system for the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66
____________	____________	____________

Please indicate source if it is other than 1960 Census

____

2. Please indicate the number of square miles in the service area of the system during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66
____________	____________	____________

Please indicate the boundaries of the area served by the library system ______________________________

SERVICE

3. Hours Open
Please indicate the number of hours the central library is regularly open each day of the week during the month of October.

____ Monday
____ Tuesday
____ Wednesday
____ Thursday
____ Friday
____ Saturday
____ Sunday

4. Reciprocal Use
   a. May persons living anywhere in the service area borrow books from any library in the service area?
      ___ Yes ___ No
   b. May a person return books to any library in the service area, regardless of the library from which the books were borrowed? ___ No ___ Yes

5. Reference Service
   a. Number of hours per week reference service is given by a professional librarian ________.
   b. Please give the number of reference questions handled during the last three fiscal years:
      __________ 1967/68 __________ 1966/67 __________ 1965/66

6. Intrasystem Loan
   a. Is there provision for loans between libraries in the system? ___ No ___ Yes
   b. If there are loans between libraries, please indicate the number of loans handled during the last three fiscal years.
      __________ 1967/68 __________ 1966/67 __________ 1965/66

COLLECTIONS

7. Books
   a. Please indicate the number of TITLES in each category that were added to the central library collection during the last fiscal year.
      __________ adult non-fiction
      __________ adult fiction
      __________ children's books
      __________ TOTAL number of TITLES added to the collection
   b. Please indicate the number of VOLUMES in each category added to the central library collection during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
__________	__________	__________	adult non-fiction
__________	__________	__________	adult fiction
__________	__________	__________	children's books
__________	__________	__________	TOTAL number of VOLUMES added to the collection

c. Please indicate the number of VOLUMES the central library contained in each category at the end of the last fiscal year.

__________ adult non-fiction

__________ adult fiction

__________ children's books

__________ TOTAL number of VOLUMES contained in the collection

8. Periodicals

a. How many periodical titles currently received by the central library are being kept for more than five years?

____

b. Please give the number of periodical titles, excluding duplicates, currently received by all the libraries that are members of the system __________.

9. Audio-Visual Materials

Please indicate the number of TITLES in each category.

__________ Films (16mm sound) in the central library collection at the end of the last fiscal year.

__________ Films (16mm sound) added to the central library collection during the last fiscal year.

__________ Recordings (disc or tape) in the central library collection at the end of the last fiscal year.

__________ Recordings (disc or tape) added to the central library collection during the last fiscal year.

CIRCULATION

10. Please indicate the circulation for each type of material (excluding non-print materials) for all the libraries in the system for the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
__________	__________	__________	children's books
__________	__________	__________	adult books
__________	__________	__________	TOTAL circulation

PERSONNEL

	Professional		Clerical	
	Full time	Part time	Full time	Part time
11. Please give the total number of persons on the library staff, excluding student help and custodial staff, at the present time	____	____	____	____
12. Education of the Library Staff Please give the number of present staff members at the central library who are				
a. Graduates of a four year college and have at least one year of library school study (graduate or undergraduate level)	____	____		
b. Graduates of a four year college, but have less than one year of library school study	____	____		
c. All others	____	____		
TOTAL	____	____		

13. Salary Scale
Please indicate for the current fiscal year the starting salary for a professional librarian with no experience

____________________.

FINANCE

14. Operating Expense
Please indicate the amount of money spent by the library system for each category during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
____________	____________	____________	books and other materials
____________	____________	____________	personnel
____________	____________	____________	other
____________	____________	____________	TOTAL operating expenditure excluding capital outlay

PUBLIC LIBRARY SYSTEMS STUDY

Name of library ______________________________

System with which affiliated ______________________

Your name __________________ Position ___________

Year the library was established __________

Please indicate the limits of the fiscal year you use:

_______ _____, 1967 - _______ _____, 1968.
month day month day

SERVICE

1. Hours Open
Please indicate the number of hours the library is regularly open each day of the week during the month of October.

___ Monday ___ Wednesday ___ Friday ___ Sunday
___ Tuesday ___ Thursday ___ Saturday

2. Reference Service
a. Number of hours per week reference service is given by professional librarian ________.

b. Please give the number of reference questions handled during the last three fiscal years:

________ 1967/68 ________ 1966/67 ________ 1965/66

3. Intrasystem Loan
a. Is there provision for loans between libraries in the service area? ___ Yes ___ No

b. If there are loans between libraries, please indicate the number of loans handled during the last three fiscal years.

________ 1967/68 ________ 1966/67 ________ 1965/66

COLLECTIONS

4. Books
a. Please indicate the number of TITLES that were added to the collection during the last fiscal year.

________ adult non-fiction
________ adult fiction
________ children's books
________ TOTAL number of TITLES added to the collection

b. Please indicate the number of VOLUMES in each category added to the collection during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
________	________	________	adult non-fiction
________	________	________	adult fiction
________	________	________	children's books
________	________	________	TOTAL number of VOLUMES added to the collection

c. Please indicate the number of VOLUMES contained in each category at the end of the last fiscal year.

______ adult non-fiction

______ adult fiction

______ children's books

______ TOTAL number of VOLUMES contained in the collection

PERSONNEL

	Professional		Clerical	
	Full time	Part time	Full time	Part time
5. Please give the total number of persons on the library staff, excluding student help and custodial staff, at the present time	____	____	____	____
6. Education of the Library Staff Please give the number of present library staff who are				
a. Graduates of a four year college and have at least one year of study (undergraduate or graduate) of library science	____	____		
b. Graduates of a four year college, but have less than one year of library school training	____	____		
c. All others	____	____		

7. Salary Scale
Please indicate for the current fiscal year the starting salary for a professional librarian with no experience ____________________.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE SENT TO COOPERATIVE SYSTEMS

DIRECTORS OF SYSTEMS
MEMBER LIBRARIES

PUBLIC LIBRARY SYSTEMS STUDY

Your name ______________________ Position ____________

Number of years you have held the present position _______

Year the library was established ________ Year system was established _______

Please indicate the limits of the fiscal year you use:

________ _____, 1967 - ________ _____, 1968.
month day month day

SERVICE AREA

1. Please indicate the population legally served by the library system for the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66
____________	____________	____________

Please indicate source if it is other than 1960 Census

____

2. Please indicate the number of square miles in the service area of the system during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66
____________	____________	____________

Please indicate the boundaries of the area served by the library system _____________________________________

SERVICE

3. Hours Open
Please indicate the number of hours the central library is regularly open each day of the week during the month of October.

____ Monday
____ Tuesday
____ Wednesday
____ Thursday
____ Friday
____ Saturday
____ Sunday

4. Reciprocal Use
   a. May persons living anywhere in the service area borrow books from any library in the service area?
      ___ Yes ___ No
   b. May a person return books to any library in the service area, regardless of the library from which the books were borrowed? ___ No ___ Yes

5. Reference Service
   a. Number of hours per week reference service is given by a professional librarian __________.
   b. Please give the number of reference questions handled during the last three fiscal years:
      ___________ 1967/68 __________ 1966/67 _______ 1965/66

6. Intrasystem Loan
   a. Is there provision for loans between libraries in the system? ___ No ___ Yes
   b. If there are loans between libraries, please indicate the number of loans handled during the last three fiscal years.
      __________ 1967/68 __________ 1966/67 _________ 1965/66

COLLECTIONS

7. Books
   a. Please indicate the number of TITLES in each category that were added to the central collection during the last fiscal year.

      __________ adult non-fiction

      __________ adult fiction

      __________ children's books

      __________ TOTAL number of TITLES added to the collection

   b. Please indicate the number of VOLUMES in each category added to the central library collection during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
__________	__________	__________	adult non-fiction
__________	__________	__________	adult fiction
__________	__________	__________	children's books
__________	__________	__________	TOTAL number of VOLUMES added to the collection

c. Please indicate the number of VOLUMES the central library contained in each category at the end of the last fiscal year.

______________ adult non-fiction

______________ adult fiction

______________ children's books

______________ TOTAL number of VOLUMES contained in the collection

8. Periodicals

a. How many periodical titles currently received by the central library are being kept for more than five years?

____

b. Please give the number of periodical titles, excluding duplicates, currently received by all the libraries that are members of the system ______________.

9. Audio-Visual Materials

Please indicate the number of TITLES in each category.

______________ Films (16mm sound) in the central library collection at the end of the last fiscal year.

______________ Films (16mm sound) added to the central library collection during the last fiscal year.

______________ Recordings (disc or tape) in the central library collection at the end of the last fiscal year.

______________ Recordings (disc or tape) added to the central library collection during the last fiscal year.

CIRCULATION

10. Please indicate the circulation for each type of material (excluding non-print materials) for all the libraries in the system for the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
____________	____________	____________	children's books
____________	____________	____________	adult books
____________	____________	____________	TOTAL circulation

PERSONNEL

	Professional		Clerical	
	Full time	Part time	Full time	Part time
11. Please give the total number of persons on the library staff, excluding student help and custodial staff, at the present time	____	____	____	____

12. Education of the Library Staff
Please give the number of present staff members at the central library who are

a. Graduates of a four year college and have at least one year of library school study (graduate or undergraduate level)	____	____
b. Graduates of a four year college, but have less than one year of library school study	____	____
c. All others	____	____
TOTAL	____	____

13. Salary Scale
Please indicate for the current fiscal year the starting salary for a professional librarian with no experience

______________________.

FINANCE

14. Operating Expense
Please indicate the amount of money spent by the library system for each category during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
__________	__________	__________	books and other materials
__________	__________	__________	personnel
__________	__________	__________	other
__________	__________	__________	TOTAL operating expenditure excluding capital outlay

PUBLIC LIBRARY SYSTEMS STUDY

Name of library ______________________________

System with which affiliated ______________________________

Your name ______________________ Position ______________

Year library established ______ Year library affiliated with system ________

Please indicate the limits of the fiscal year you use:

_______ ___, 1967 - _______ ___, 1968
month day month day

SERVICE AREA

1. Please indicate the population legally served by the library for the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66

Please indicate source if it is other than 1960 Census ________ ______________________________.

2. Please indicate the number of square miles in the service area during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66

Please indicate the boundaries of the area served by the library ______________________________

SERVICE

3. Hours Open
Please indicate the number of hours the library is regularly open each day of the week during the month of October.

___ Monday ___ Wednesday ___ Friday ___ Sunday
___ Tuesday ___ Thursday ___ Saturday

4. Reciprocal Use
   a. May persons living anywhere in the service area borrow books from any library in the service area? ___ Yes ___ No
   b. May a person return books to any library in the service area, regardless of the library from which the books were borrowed? ___ No ___ Yes

5. Reference Service
   a. Number of hours per week reference service is given by a professional librarian ________.
   b. Please give the number of reference questions handled during the last three fiscal years:

      ________ 1967/68 _______ 1966/67 _______ 1965/66

6. Intrasystem Loan
   a. Is there provision for loans between libraries in the service area? ___ Yes ___ No
   b. If there are loans between libraries, please indicate the number of loans handled during the last three fiscal years:

      _______ 1967/68 _______ 1966/67 _______ 1965/66

COLLECTIONS

7. Books
   a. Please indicate the number of TITLES that were added to the collection during the last fiscal year.

      _______ adult non-fiction

      _______ adult fiction

      _______ children's books

      _______ TOTAL number of TITLES added to the collection

   b. Please indicate the number of VOLUMES in each category added to the collection during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
___________	___________	___________	adult non-fiction
___________	___________	___________	adult fiction
___________	___________	___________	children's books
___________	___________	___________	TOTAL number of VOLUMES added to the collection

   c. Please indicate the number of VOLUMES that were contained in each category at the end of the last fiscal year.

      _______ adult non-fiction

      _______ adult fiction

      _______ children's books

      _______ TOTAL number of VOLUMES contained in the collection

CIRCULATION

8. Please indicate the circulation for each type of material for the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
________	________	________	children's books
________	________	________	adults' books
________	________	________	TOTAL circulation

PERSONNEL

	Professional		Clerical	
	Full time	Part time	Full time	Part time
9. Please give the total number of persons on the library staff, excluding student help and custodial staff, at the present time	____	____	____	____

10. Education of the Library Staff
Please give the number of present library staff members who are

a. Graduates of a four year college and have at least one year of library school study (graduate or undergraduate level)	____	____
b. Graduates of a four year college, but have less than one year of library school study	____	____
c. All others	____	____
TOTAL	____	____

11. Salary Scale
Please indicate for the current fiscal year the starting salary for a professional librarian with no experience ______________.

FINANCE

12. Operating Expense
Please indicate the amount of money the library spent for each category during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
________	________	________	Books and other library materials
________	________	________	Personnel
________	________	________	Other
________	________	________	TOTAL operating expenditure, excluding capital outlay

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE SENT TO NON-SYSTEM LIBRARIES

URBAN PUBLIC LIBRARY STUDY

Name of library ____

Your name __________________________ Position _______________

Year library was established _________

Please indicate the limits of the fiscal year you use:

_______ ___, 1967 - _______ ___, 1968.
month day month day

SERVICE AREA

1. Please indicate the population legally served by the library for the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66
___________	___________	___________

Please indicate source if it is other than 1960 Census ________

2. Please indicate the number of square miles in the service area during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66
___________	___________	___________

Please indicate the boundaries of the area served by the library ____

SERVICE

3. Hours Open
Please indicate the number of hours the library is regularly open each day of the week during the month of October.

____ Monday ____ Wednesday _____ Friday ____ Sunday
____ Tuesday ____ Thursday _____ Saturday

4. Use
   a. May persons living outside the library's service area borrow books from the library? ___ Yes ___ No
   b. Do books have to be returned to the library from which they were borrowed? ___ No ___ Yes

5. Reference Service
   a. Number of hours per week reference service is given by a professional librarian ________.
   b. Please give the number of reference questions handled during the last three fiscal years:

      ________ 1967/68 ________ 1966/67 ________ 1965/66

6. Interlibrary Loan
   a. Is there provision for loans between libraries? ___ No ___ Yes
   b. If yes, please indicate the number of interlibrary loans handled during the last three fiscal years.

      ________ 1967/68 ________ 1966/67 ________ 1965/66

COLLECTIONS

7. Books
   a. Please indicate the number of TITLES in each category that were added to the library's collection during the last fiscal year.

      ________ adult non-fiction

      ________ adult fiction

      ________ children's books

      ________ TOTAL number of TITLES added to the collection

   b. Please indicate the number of VOLUMES in each category added to the library's collection during the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
			adult non-fiction
			adult fiction
			children's books
			TOTAL number of VOLUMES added to the collection

   c. Please indicate the number of VOLUMES contained in each category at the end of the last fiscal year.

      ________ adult non-fiction

      ________ adult fiction

      ________ children's books

      ________ TOTAL number of VOLUMES contained in the collection

8. Periodicals
   a. How many of the periodical titles currently received by the library are being held for more than five years? ________
   b. Please give the number of periodical titles, excluding duplicates, currently being received by the library ________

9. Audio-Visual Materials
Please indicate the number of TITLES in each category:

________ Films (16mm sound) in the library's collection at the end of the last fiscal year

________ Films (16mm sound) added to the library's collection during the last fiscal year

________ Recordings (disc or tape) in the library's collection at the end of the last fiscal year

________ Recordings (disc or tape) added to the library's collection during the last fiscal year

CIRCULATION

10. Please indicate the circulation for each type of material (excluding non-print materials) for the last three fiscal years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
________	________	________	children's books
________	________	________	adult books
________	________	________	TOTAL circulation

PERSONNEL

	Professional		Clerical	
	Full time	Part time	Full time	Part time
11. Please give the total number of persons on the library staff, excluding student help and custodial staff, at the present time	____	____	____	____
12. Education of the Library Staff Please give the number of present library staff members who are				
a. Graduates of a four year college and have at least one year of library school study (graduate or undergraduate level)	____	____		
b. Graduates of a four year college, but have less than one year of library school study	____	____		
c. All others	____	____		
TOTAL	____	____		

13. Salary Scale
Please indicate for the current fiscal year the starting salary for a professional librarian with no experience ____________

FINANCE

14. Operating Expense
Please indicate the amount of money spent for each category during each of the last three years.

1967/68	1966/67	1965/66	
			books and other library materials
			personnel
			other
			TOTAL operating expenditure, excluding capital outlay

APPENDIX D

REFERENCE QUESTIONS

In finding the answers to the following questions, please

a) use only the resources in your own library
b) indicate the source (including the page number) where the answer was found
c) keep a record of approximately how much time it took to find the answers
d) give the questions no special consideration, but treat them as you would a patron's request for information.

1. Can you give me a copy of the Indiana State Constitution?

2. Who were the stars in the 1966 Broadway production of Wait Until Dark?

3. What was the average retail price of anthracite stove coal in 1941?

4. What was the circulation of the St. Louis Post Dispatch in 1967?

5. I have a car with an automatic clutch, and I want to know how to make adjustments on it.

6. Is alcohol a stimulant or depressant?

7. I have been told that electricity is transmitted at high voltages over long distances to minimize losses from resistance. Can you give me some recent information on voltages in use, or prospective use, and the limiting factors?

8. I have heard that hybrid corn and other hybrid plants are usually strong. This is sometimes called hybrid vigor. Does hybridization always result in vigor?

9. I want to know the median income of persons living in Champaign County, Illinois, in 1959. I would also like to know the aggregate income of all persons in the county.

10. I understand that in experiments with mice, research workers have found that they can greatly increase their efficiency by in-breeding and getting pure-bred strains. Can you give me information on the main breeding center for these mice?

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR DIRECTORS OF CONSOLIDATED AND COOPERATIVE SYSTEMS

SCALE FOR RATING RESPONSES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

GENERAL

Systems of public libraries have provided the framework within which libraries can work together to improve the library service for all residents of the area.

1. On the basis of your experience, what is the greatest single benefit of the organization of libraries into systems?

2. What is the greatest single drawback that has resulted from the system organization?

3. Do you encourage persons in charge of the member libraries to try new procedures even though some mistakes might be made in the process?

To improve the quality of service a library is giving, it is necessary to know how well the service is meeting the needs of the users.

4. What means do you have to get feedback about the services that are offered by the system?
   a. How does this feedback affect your planning for future action?

PERSONNEL

Programs for in-service training in such public service areas as reference work, children's work, young adult's work are frequently offered by library systems for the staffs of the member libraries.

5. Has your library system sponsored any kind of in-service training programs during the last fiscal year?

6. If you have, what has been the nature of the programs? (e.g., short courses, conferences, workshops)
   a. Approximately how many persons participated in the programs?
   b. Was the effectiveness of the programs evaluated?
   c. What means of evaluation was used?

7. In what other areas does the system offer personnel services to the member libraries? (e.g., consulting services, public relations)

COLLECTIONS

8. What role does the system play in the selection of materials for the collections of libraries that are members of the system?
    a. To what extent are member libraries involved in the selection of materials?

SERVICE

Reference service is one aspect of the total program of service to the public that a system offers to its member libraries.

9. In your opinion, what is the role of reference service in this broad program of service?
   What is the relative importance of reference compared with the other services?

10. When the system receives requests for information that cannot be answered, how are they handled?
    a. Does the system have a network of rapid communication with an outside reference center?
    b. Do you use non-library resources (such as local businesses, banks, industry) to answer questions?

11. Do you maintain a list of system-wide holdings?
    a. Is this list used to answer reference questions that are sent to you by the member libraries?
    b. If it is used for this purpose, please estimate the number of times this resource was used to answer reference questions during the last fiscal year.

12. How do you rate the success (in terms of speed, accuracy, and efficiency) of the reference service in the system?

SCALE FOR RATING RESPONSES FROM SYSTEM DIRECTORS

3. Do you encourage persons in charge of member libraries to try new procedures?

   0 = very little encouragement; no active encouragement
   1 = active system encouragement
   2 = organized procedure for instituting new procedures

4. What means do you have of getting feedback about the services that are offered by the system?

   0 = no means of getting feedback
   1 = informal means only, such as comments volunteered by patrons
   2 = discussions are regularly held at organized meetings
   3 = user survey

4a. What effect has this feedback on your planning for future action?

   0 = no effect
   1 = affects in some manner

5. Has your library sponsored any kind of in-service training programs during the last fiscal year?

   0 = no programs
   1 = one workshop or extension class
   2 = two or more workshops
   3 = continuing cycle of programs

6b. How was the effectiveness of the in-service training programs evaluated?

   0 = no evaluation of any kind
   1 = informal evaluation only (comments, number of persons attending)
   2 = written evaluation

7. In what other areas does the system offer personnel services to the member libraries?

   0 = no other personnel services offered
   1 = one service
   2 = two or more services

8. What role does the system play in the selection of materials for the collections of libraries that are members of the system?

0 = no role
1 = central or headquarters library advises
    prepares list of recommended titles
    has book selection meetings
2 = central library prepares a list from which selection must be made

9. What is the role of reference service in the broad program of service?

1 = an important service, but not primary
2 = most important service offered

10. When the system receives requests for information that cannot be answered, how are they handled?

0 = do not pursue reference questions beyond the resources of the library
1 = try to find a source in the city
2 = organized state-wide reference service is consulted

10a. Does the system have a network of rapid communication with an outside reference center?

0 = no rapid communication
1 = telephone
2 = teletype (TWX)

10b. Do you use non-library resources to answer questions?

0 = no use is made of non-library resources
1 = occasionally use is made of non-library resources
2 = frequent use is made of non-library resources

11. Do you maintain a union list of system-wide holdings?

0 = no union list
1 = partial list of holdings
2 = union catalog (card catalog or book catalog)

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR MEMBERS OF CONSOLIDATED AND COOPERATIVE SYSTEMS

SCALE FOR RATING RESPONSES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

GENERAL

Systems of public libraries have provided the framework within which libraries can work together to improve the library service for all the residents of an area.

1. In general terms, what has it meant to your library to be a member of a system?

2. In your opinion, what is the greatest single benefit you have derived from system membership?

3. What is the greatest single drawback that has resulted from the system organization?

4. Are you encouraged to try new procedures, even though you may make mistakes in the process?

5. What role do you have in making the policy of the library system?
   a. Is your opinion asked and considered, or must you follow what is established without questioning it?
   b. Do you have access to the facts about issues that are concerned with policy-making?
   c. What kinds of communication do you have within the system?

PERSONNEL

Programs for in-service training in public service areas such as reference and children's work are frequently offered to the staffs of libraries that are members of public library systems.

6. Have you or any members of your staff participated in any library in-service training programs sponsored by the system during the last fiscal year?
   a. What has been the nature of the programs? (e.g., short courses, conferences, work shops)
   b. What has been the value of the programs to you and the members of your staff?

7. Who hires the persons who work in your library?
   a. Do you have a voice in deciding who is hired?

COLLECTIONS

8. How are books selected for your library?
    a. What role does the system play in the selection process?

9. Do you have access to a larger collection of books from which you can borrow volumes to add to your collection temporarily?
    a. Please estimate the number of books that were added temporarily during the course of the last fiscal year.
    b. How successful do you think this procedure has been?

10. Do you have access to a film collection outside your library?
    a. If you do, how many films did you borrow during the last fiscal year?

11. Do you have access to a collection of recordings (disc or tape) outside your library?
    a. If you do, how many recordings did you borrow during the last fiscal year?

SERVICE

Reference service is one aspect of the total program of service to the public that a system offers to its member libraries.

12. In your opinion, what is the role of reference service in your total program of service?
    Please estimate its importance when compared with other services offered.

13. How do you handle requests for information that you cannot answer?
    a. Are unanswerable questions referred to the system headquarters?
    b. Do you use non-library resources (such as local businesses and industry, banks) to answer questions?
    c. Please estimate how many times during the past year you have used such resources.

14. Do you think the reference service you have been able to offer to your patrons is better because of your membership in the system?

15. How do you rate the success (in terms of accuracy, speed, and efficiency) of the reference service your library offers?

SCALE FOR RATING RESPONSES FROM MEMBER LIBRARIES

4. Are you encouraged to try new procedures?

   0 = does not apply
   1 = no encouragement
   2 = system is willing to help and advise
   3 = system actively encourages

5. What role do you have in making the policy of the library system?

   0 = does not apply; person has has no experience or does not avail himself of available opportunity
   1 = member libraries have little or no role in making policy
   2 = opinions and suggestions of member libraries are welcomed and considered
   3 = member libraries have a formal role in formulation of system policy

5c. What kinds of communication do you have within the system?

   1 = rapid communication (telephone, TWX) and regular newsletter
   2 = rapid communication and regular staff meetings
   3 = rapid communication and regular newsletter and regular staff meetings

6. Have you or any members of your staff participated in any library in-service training programs sponsored by the system during the last fiscal year?

   0 = attended no programs
   1 = attended at least one program or extension class
   2 = attended two or more programs

7. Who hires the persons who work in your library?

   0 = does not know or has not hired anyone
   1 = librarian or librarian and board
   2 = system secures applicants and branch librarian makes final decision

8. What role does the system play in the selection of books for your library?

    0 = board selects the books that are to be added
    1 = librarian handles all selection by reading reviews and discussions with the staff
    2 = list of recommended books is ent out; advisory in nature; have regularly scheduled meetings to discuss new titles
    3 = list of titles distributed; choice must be made from this list; regular meetings to discuss titles

9. Do you have access to a larger collection of books from which you can borrow?

    1 = have access to a larger collection
    2 = have access and can borrow collections of books
    3 = have access and can borrow collections on a regular program

10. Do you have access to a film collection outside your library?

    0 = no access to a film collection
    1 = have access but do not borrow for the individual patron
    2 = have access and make light to moderate usage of resources
    3 = have access and make heavy use of resources

11. Do you have access to a collection of recordings (disc or tape) outside your library?

    0 = no access to a collection
    1 = have access, but do not borrow for the individual patron; he must borrow himself
    2 = have access, but do not borrow
    3 = have access and borrow

12. In your opinion, what is the role of reference service in your total program of service?

    0 = demand for reference is not great enough to assign a level of importance to it
    1 = important service, but not primary
    2 = most important service, and primary emphasis is given to it

13. How do you handle requests for information that you cannot answer?

    1 = refer the person to another source of information if possible
    2 = may call a larger library in the area or the state library, but hesitate to do this
    3 = refer the question to the central library or system headquarters as a regular procedure

13b. Do you use non-library resources to answer reference questions?

0 = do not use non-library resources
1 = use non-library resources infrequently
2 = use non-library resources frequently

APPENDIX G

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR NON-SYSTEM LIBRARIES
SCALE FOR RATING RESPONSES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

GENERAL

1. Have there been any provisions for co-operation among the libraries in the SMSA?
   a) If yes, would you please describe the nature of these co-operative enterprises.

2. What has been the greatest single benefit you have derived from any such co-operative ventures in which you have participated?

3. What has been the greatest single drawback of any such co-operative ventures in which you have participated?

4. Do you have any means of getting feedback about the service that the library offers?
   a) If you do, what effect does this feedback have on your planning for future action?

5. Do you offer any service to the persons who live outside your legal service area?
   a) If you do not at present, do you have any plans for extending the service area in the future?

PERSONNEL

6. Have you or any members of your staff participated in any in-service training programs offered by your library or another library in the area?
   a) If yes, what has been the nature of the programs (e.g., short courses, conference, one-day work shops)?

   b) What has been the value of the programs to you and the members of your staff?

COLLECTIONS

7. How are books selected for your library?

8. Is there any effort to co-ordinate the selection of books in the libraries in the area?
    For instance, do libraries in the area specialize in a subject and other libraries draw on that collection rather than building their own resources in that particular subject? Or, if you are purchasing an expensive set of books, do you check with other libraries in the area to see if they have the set or plan to purchase it?

9. Do you have access to a larger collection of books from which you can borrow volumes to add to your collection temporarily?
    a) If yes, please estimate the number of books you have added in such a manner during the last fiscal year.
    b) How successful do you think this procedure has been?

10. Do you have access to a film collection outside your library from which you can borrow?
    a) If yes, how many films did you borrow during the last fiscal year?

11. Do you have access to a collection of recordings (disc or tape) outside your library from which you can borrow?
    a) If yes, how many recordings did you borrow during the last fiscal year?

SERVICE

Reference service is one aspect of the total program of service to the public that a library offers to its patrons.

12. In your opinion what is the role of reference service in your total program of service?

13. How do you handle requests for information that you cannot answer?
    a) Do you refer the questions to a larger library?
    b) Do you use non-library resources (such as local businesses, industry, and banks) to find the answers to questions?
    c) Please estimate the number of times during the past year you have used resources outside your own library to answer reference questions.

14. How do you rate the success (in terms of accuracy, speed, and efficiency) of the reference service your library offers?

SCALE FOR RATING RESPONSES

1. Have there been any provisions for co-operation among the libraries in the SMSA?

    0 = no provision
    1 = cooperation being carried on in some area

4. Do you have any means of getting feedback about the service that the library offers?

    0 = no means of getting feedback
    1 = informal means only, such as comments volunteered by patrons
    2 = discussions at regularly held, organized meetings
    3 = user survey

6. Have you or any members of your staff participated in any in-service training programs offered by your library or another library in the area?

    0 = have attended no programs or does not apply
    1 = attended at least one program or extension class
    2 = attended two or more sessions

8. Is there any effort to co-ordinate the selection of books in the libraries in the SMSA?

    0 = no effort is made
    1 = some co-ordination within the metropolitan area, but not in the SMSA

9. Do you have access to a larger collection of books from which you can borrow volumes to add to your collection temporarily?

    1 = have access to a larger collection
    2 = have access and can borrow
    3 = have access and can borrow on a regular basis

10. Do you have access to a film collection outside your library from which you can borrow?

    0 = no access to a film collection
    1 = have access, but do not borrow for the individual patron
    2 = have access and make light to moderate use of collection
    3 = have access and make heavy use of collection

11. Do you have access to a collection of recordings?

    0 = no access to a collection of recordings
    1 = have access, but patron must borrow
    2 = have access, but do not borrow
    3 = have access and borrow

12. In your opinion, what is the role of reference service in your total program of service?

    1 = an important service, but not primary
    2 = most important service offered

13. How do you handle requests for information that you cannot answer?

    1 = refer the person to another source of information if possible
    2 = may call a larger library in the area or the state library, but hesitate to do this
    3 = refer the question to an organized state-wide reference service

13b. Do you use non-library resources to answer reference questions?

    0 = do not use non-library resources
    1 = use non-library resources infrequently
    2 = use non-library resources frequently

APPENDIX H

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR MEASURES OF LEVEL OF SERVICE AND TYPE OF ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

Measures	Consolidated Systems	Cooperative Systems	Non-System Libraries
	r	r	r
1. Number of hours the library is open per week (N = 127)	.248*	-.141	-.109
2. Provision for reciprocal use (N = 84)	.043	-.139	-.157
3. Books may be returned to any library (N = 84)	.188	.550*	-.629*
4. Provision for loans between libraries in the system or the SMSA (N = 114)	.128	.135	-.310*
5. Adult non-fiction volumes added, 1967/68 (N = 74)	.044	-.048	.010
6. Adult fiction volumes added, 1967/68 (N = 75)	-.069	.058	.004
7. Adult non-fiction & fiction volumes added, 1967/68 (N = 108)	-.072	.032	.047
8. Children's volumes added, 1967/68 (N = 108)	.054	.064	.013
9. Total volumes added, 1967/68 (N = 122)	-.076	.060	.015
10. Adult non-fiction volumes added, 1966/67 (N = 72)	.054	-.065	.019
11. Adult fiction volumes added, 1966/67 (N = 69)	-.104	.086	.011
12. Adult non-fiction & fiction volumes added, 1966/67 (N = 102)	-.086	.044	.049
13. Children's volumes added, 1966/67 (N = 103)	-.147	.049	.114
14. Total volumes added, 1966/67 (N = 118)	-.103	.085	.021
15. Adult non-fiction volumes added, 1965/66 (N = 59)	.079	-.080	.005
16. Adult fiction volumes added, 1965/66 (N = 58)	-.106	.073	.030
17. Adult non-fiction & fiction volumes added, 1965/66 (N = 94)	-.071	.024	.055
18. Children's volumes added, 1965/66 (N = 97)	-.052	.006	.053
19. Total volumes added, 1965/66 (N = 112)	-.038	-.004	.044
20. Number of periodical titles kept 5 years or more (N = 26)	.459*	.562*	-.707*
21. Number of periodical titles currently received (N = 29)	.528*	.594*	-.781*
22. Number of films (titles) in collection at end of last fiscal year (67/68) (N = 9)	-.070	.597	-.433
23. Number of films (titles) added during last fiscal year (67/68) (N = 7)	-.322	.721	-.368
24. Number of recordings (titles) held at end of last fiscal year (67/68) (N = 21)	.179	.731*	-.650*
25. Number of recordings (titles) added during last fiscal year (67/68) (N = 21)	.557*	.256	-.634*
26. Circulation - children, 1967/68 (N = 72)	.709*	-.215	-.023
27. Circulation - adult, 1967/68 (N = 72)	.402*	-.094	-.041
28. Circulation - total, 1967/68 (N = 78)	.641*	-.193	-.060
29. Circulation - children, 1966/67 (N = 71)	.721*	-.237*	-.006
30. Circulation - adult, 1966/67 (N = 71)	.408*	-.094	-.044

Measures	Consolidated Systems r	Cooperative Systems r	Non-System Libraries r
31. Circulation - total, 1966/67 (N = 78)	.652*	-.200	-.056
32. Circulation - children, 1965/66 (N =67)	.732*	-.246	-.009
33. Circulation - adult, 1965/66 (N = 67)	.377*	-.092	-.040
34. Circulation - total, 1965/66 (N = 78)	.658*	-.198	-.056
35. Operating expense - books, etc., 1967/68 (N = 79)	.506*	-.146	-.053
36. Operating expense - personnel, 1967/68 (N = 80)	.517*	-.134	-.068
37. Operating expense - other, 1967/68 (N = 76)	.671*	-.204	-.163
38. Total operating expenditures, 1967/68 (N = 85)	.562*	-.135	-.077
39. Operating expense - books, etc. 1966/67 (N = 76)	.518*	-.167	-.039
40. Operating expense - personnel, 1966/67 (N = 77)	.514*	-.121	-.083
41. Operating expense - other, 1966/67 (N = 74)	.608*	-.133	-.112
42. Total operating expenditures, 1966/67 (N = 85)	.545*	-.124	-.082
43. Operating expense - books, etc. 1965/66 (N = 74)	.425*	-.149	-.021
44. Operating expense - personnel, 1965/66 (N = 75)	.521*	-.109	-.099
45. Operating expense - other, 1965/66 (N = 71)	.658*	-.192	-.079
46. Total operating expenditures, 1965/66 (N = 80)	.542*	-.123	-.087
47. Full time staff, graduates of 4 yr college + 1 year library school (N = 122)	-.061	.027	.036
48. Part time staff, graduates of 4 year college + 1 year library school (N = 122)	-.173	.153	.018
49. Full time staff, graduates of 4 yr college, less than one year library school (N = 122)	.076	-.112	.042
50. Part time staff, graduates of 4 yr college, less than one year library school (N = 122)	-.158	.178*	-.025
51. Full time staff - all others (N = 124)	-.101	.044	.062
52. Part time staff - all others (N = 124)	-.253*	.202	.049
53. Full time staff - total (N = 124)	-.071	.015	.062
54. Part time staff - total (N = 125)	-.293*	.200*	.094

* - significant at .05 level

PART VI

FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH MEMBERSHIP AND NON-MEMBERSHIP IN LIBRARY SYSTEMS IN ILLINOIS

by

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

One of the major trends in public library development in the United States during this century has been the move toward larger units of library service. Convincing local library units to join with other libraries in cooperative programs of service has been a slow and difficult task. Recently, due in large part to the availability of both state and federal funds, some remarkable progress has been made in a number of states, such as New York, Pennsylvania and Illinois, where library systems have been formed in an attempt to extend service to all of the people of these states. One of the factors which has slowed the development of such cooperative efforts has been the resistance of the local library units. Some libraries simply refuse to take part, others are reluctant and take long periods of time before deciding to join.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the reasons for this resistance to membership in library systems in Illinois. Some of the topics to be considered are the demographic and economic aspects which affect libraries, the personal characteristics and attitudes of librarians and trustees as they relate to library service in general, and the reactions of librarians and trustees to specific features of the systems' programs.

The state of Illinois offers an excellent opportunity for the study of this problem. Legislation permitting and funding a network of library systems was signed into law in August, 1965,[1] and the first systems were approved by the State Librarian in March, 1966. A large proportion (85 percent) of the libraries in Illinois have responded favorably to the system concept; and of those who have joined, a majority were charter members. There remain, however, a number of libraries which have not joined and a larger number which waited from three months to almost three years to make the decision to join.

Since the time which has elapsed since the formation of systems began in Illinois is relatively short, it was felt that the initial reactions to the system concept would still be fresh in the minds of the people who were involved in the decision to join or not to join. It was also felt that since most of the systems are still engaged in developing their programs of service it would be possible to get reactions to specific features of the programs, since local units would still be in the process of evaluating and trying various system services. While the number of non-members is small in comparison, there are still enough to provide an opportunity to study the factors operating in these cases.

Early System Development in Illinois

Traditionally public libraries in Illinois, as elsewhere, have been associated with relatively small local units such as the town, village, township, city or school district and as a result most libraries have remained small and poorly supported. The course which public library development was to take in Illinois in the 1960's was influenced strongly by the availability of federal and state funds and by the developments under way in other parts of the country. The decade of the 1950's and the early years of the 1960's were years of great activity in developing comprehensive and long-range plans for library development. In the period from 1950 and 1965, Bunge listed over 70 surveys which had been completed.[2]

Most notable among the states from which ideas were borrowed were New York and Pennsylvania. By the end of 1961, when Illinois was just beginning its planning, virtually all of New York State was covered by library systems.[3] In Pennsylvania a study of library facilities and needs was completed in 1958, and in 1961 the major recommendations of the report became part of the Library Code.[4]

In other states the progress was slower, but work was moving in the direction of larger units of service and long-range planning for library service on a statewide basis. Between 1956 and 1967, only three states had not either begun or completed a survey of library conditions, and in virtually all of the reports there is the recommendation that steps be taken toward larger units of service and greater cooperative activity.[5] It is in the perspective of this kind of activity in many parts of the nation that the developments in Illinois must be viewed.

In Illinois the most rapid progress in system development has been made in the 1960's. Prior to this time there had been little systematic planning or progress toward the establishment of larger units. Despite the fact that Illinois had had a county library law since 1919 and a district law since

1943, there are only two county libraries and 30 district libraries, most of them relatively small.[6]

In 1939 a law was passed which divided the state into six geographic library regions. It was the intention of the State Library to establish a library service center in each of these regions as branches of the State Library. The purpose of these centers was to provide supplementary materials to existing public and school libraries and to give service to those people who were without it.[7] The first of these centers was not established until 1952 due largely to a lack of funds. After the first of the centers was set up at DeKalb, others were subsequently established at Bloomington, Mattoon, Savanna, Chicago and Kankakee. Although the hope was that these centers would greatly expand the supply of materials and services available, a lack of funds, staff and adequate advance planning kept them from becoming more than book distribution centers.[8]

With the help of federal funds made available under the Library Services Act the centers at DeKalb and Savanna were converted into regional libraries and a third regional library was organized at Carbondale.[9]

These regional libraries were an example of attempts to improve and extend library service by direct action of the State Library, but within a relatively short period of time the emphasis changed from the operation of regional libraries by the State Library to the creation of systems of public libraries governed by trustees of the participating libraries. As the systems were organized these regional libraries were disbanded and their materials and services transferred to the systems.

Illinois Plan for Public Library Development

In 1961, in her inaugural address as president of the Illinois Library Association, Phyllis Maggeroli called attention to the need for improved service by all types of libraries in Illinois--public, school and academic. As a beginning to the solution of the problem she called for the appointment of an ad hoc Library Development Committee to investigate ways of providing better service.[10]

This committee of 23 librarians and trustees was appointed and represented all types of libraries and a wide variety of professional orientations. Early in the deliberations of the group it was decided that while all types of libraries needed improving, the initial focus should be on public libraries.[11]

After a period of study the Library Development Committee proposed to the Executive Board of the Illinois Library Association the formulation of a plan to:

(1) provide for larger units of library service;
(2) propose ways and means of financing such service;
(3) determine standards of book collections, staff, finances, and services equal to or better than national standards; and
(4) recommend methods of implementing the proposed statewide public library development program.

It was also proposed that the plan be developed by a paid director after a study of existing conditions in Illinois and of developments in other states.

The proposal of the Committee was approved by the Executive Board of the Illinois Library Association, and both the proposal and the budget of $27,092 were subsequently approved by the Library Services Act Project Selection Committee.

Equipped with a plan and funds, the committee hired Robert H. Rohlf, then Director of the Dakota-Scott Regional Library in West St. Paul, Minnesota, to direct the study. After ten months' work involving visits to seven other states and interviews with librarians and trustees in 125 Illinois libraries, Rohlf submitted his report, A Plan for Public Library Development in Illinois.[12]

The plan was accepted as submitted by the Library Development Committee and was endorsed by the Illinois Library Association and the Illinois State Library.

The Rohlf Report

Rohlf's report provides some revealing and discouraging facts about the state of public library service in Illinois. In 1963 there were almost a million more people without library service than in 1947, even though the number of libraries had increased by 35 percent during this period. Twenty-one percent of the population (2,109,534) were without access to local public library service, and an additional 13 percent (1,286,661) had access only to substandard service.

Tax support of public libraries in 1963 was $1.67 per capita, if the city of Chicago is included, but only $1.43 per capita when Chicago is excluded. Seventy-five percent of the state's libraries served populations under 10,000.

Excluding the city of Chicago, the average population served by Illinois libraries was 8,502.

Serious inadequacies were found also in both the book collections and staff. Seventy-four percent of the libraries had collections smaller than 25,000 volumes. Only eleven libraries had collections larger than 100,000 volumes. The number of librarians with professional training was and still is extremely small. (In the 15 systems for which information is available currently, only 56 of the 369 member libraries have professional librarians.)

Inadequate physical facilities and limited hours of opening were additional details in an already bleak picture.

Given the small populations and areas served and the limited tax base of so many of the libraries, there was little possibility of local libraries making significant improvements on their own. In the face of these problems Rohlf proposed a large scale cooperative effort financed by state funds.

Provisions of the plan.--There were four specific major proposals in the plan advanced by Rohlf:

(1) A state aid payment of an equalization nature to all qualifying libraries.
(2) Creation and financing of cooperative library systems throughout the state.
(3) Financing of four reference centers to serve as material resource centers to the entire state.
(4) Creation by the State Library of a Union Catalog and Union List of Serials held by selected Illinois libraries.

Equalization payments.--In order to insure a minimum level of financial support for public libraries, Rohlf recommended that equalization aid be given to libraries unable to raise a per capita income of $1.50. To qualify for this aid libraries would have to levy a tax of at least 0.6 mill. If this levy failed to produce $1.50 per capita, the state would pay the difference between the amount raised and $1.50. Libraries would not be permitted to reduce their levies from a higher level, and no aid would be given to libraries serving under 10,000 people unless they were members of a library system. Rohlf recognized that $1.50 was not really adequate financial support, but felt that it was a reasonable point at which the program could begin.

Library systems.--The heart of the plan proposed by Rohlf was the creation of state-supported library systems. The library system is defined in the plan as a public library serving more than one community, preferably with support from the state. It would be a library's library, offering supplementary services to community libraries rather than direct services to the public.

Some of the advantages that Rohlf saw in the system plan were that it would end the problem of non-resident use by breaking down the boundaries between library districts, overcome overlapping political jurisdictions and give people access to a wider range of library services and resources. Expensive materials and services could be provided on a cooperative basis, and with the added support from state funds service could be extended to unserved areas. By sharing resources, more specialization and depth could be provided in the collections of the member libraries. The ultimate hope of the plan as envisioned in the report was that all citizens of the state would have access to high quality library service. Perhaps most important there would be a long-range plan for continuous and orderly growth of library service.

It was suggested that 21 systems be formed, and tentative boundaries for the systems were drawn. A minimum size of 4,000 square miles or a population of 150,000 would be required before a system could be fully approved. Conditional approval would be granted if it could be shown that the conditions could be met within five years. System membership would be strictly voluntary with local libraries retaining complete control of their operations. The systems would be governed by boards of directors whose members would come from the local boards.

State support of the systems was recommended in the form of establishment grants, per capita grants and area grants. The establishment grant was to be given for the first year only and was to be based on the number of counties served. If the system served only one county or part of one county, the grant would be $25,000; for each additional county served in whole or part the system would receive $15,000.

The continuing annual support for the systems was to be on the basis of population and area served. The population grant suggested was $.40 per capita. To compensate systems serving large areas with relatively small populations, area grants of $5.00 per square mile in the first county and $3.00 per square mile in additional counties were suggested. The maximum area grant would be $14.00 per square mile over the entire area served. The schedule of area grants was changed in the final version of the law to a straight $15.00 for each square mile served.

The hope was expressed in the plan that the suggested boundaries would not become rigid dividing lines, but rather that intersystem cooperation would be fully explored with even the merging of systems being an eventual possibility.

Reference centers.--The development plan called also for the creation of four reference centers to supply a third level of service and resources. These centers would also be aided by state funds and would be expected to supply materials which were unavailable at the system level. The Chicago Public Library, the Illinois State Library and the libraries at the University of Illinois and Southern Illinois University were recommended to be the four centers, because of their tax-supported nature and the quality of their collections. These centers would be expected to supply interlibrary loans and photocopy service to all systems within the state and to make their collections available to all people with a legitimate need for research materials.

Because of the difficulty of having any one library collect all the materials that might be required, it was suggested that a coordinated policy of acquisitions be worked out among the four centers to permit subject specialization and to avoid unnecessary duplication.

Union Catalog and Union List of Serials.--The final proposals of the plan called for the preparation of a union list of holdings of both books and serials of ten to twenty of the major public, special and academic libraries in the state. These lists, which were to be prepared by the State Library, could logically be used for central bibliographic control of materials for interlibrary lending, although few details are given about the organization or use of the lists.

Role of the State Library.--The plan suggested some changes in the role of the State Library. Traditionally the State Library had lent supplementary collections of materials to libraries in the state. It was suggested that the State Library relinquish this function to the systems and concentrate on its role as the administrative unit for the development plan and as one of the four reference centers.

The Law and Rules and Regulations

Following the completion of the plan and its acceptance by the Illinois Library Association, it was felt that the next step in the implementation of the plan was to publicize it widely among librarians, trustees, legislators and any other people who might be able to lend support to it on its presentation to the legislature. The Library Development Committee was assigned responsibility for disseminating information about the plan and for drafting the necessary legislation. A steering committee of five members was appointed from the full committee to direct these activities.[13]

Before drafting the legislation a series of meetings was held throughout the state sponsored by the State Library and the Illinois Library Association. Librarians, trustees, city officials and interested citizens were invited to these meetings at which some of the ideas and proposals of the plan were presented and discussed. The system plan was not easy to explain, and since the administrative details had not been worked out, there were many questions that went unanswered. The main thrust of the presentations was that library service had to be improved, that individual libraries could not do it alone, and that here finally was an opportunity for libraries to work together for a common goal.

In addition to these meetings with librarians and trustees, contact was established with educational and civic groups that might be interested and able to lend support. Endorsements were obtained from the Governor and from the candidates for Secretary of State.

Legislation embodying the main proposals of the plan was drafted in the fall of 1964 and introduced into both houses of the Legislature in the spring of 1965, with bipartisan support. The bill passed the House with only three "no" votes and on May 3, 1965, the Senate passed the bill with only one dissenting vote. It was House Bill 563, "A Plan for the Establishment of a Network of Public Library Systems" that was sent to the Governor for his signature. The Governor signed the bill into law on August 17, 1965.

Provisions of the law.--The first section of the law recognizes the State's financial responsibility for encouraging the improvement of public libraries as part of its support of public education. This is the first time in Illinois that this obligation has been explicitly and officially stated.[14]

A library system is defined in the law as one or more public libraries serving a minimum of 150,000 people or an area of 4,000 square miles. A system can be a cooperative library system in which libraries enter into a written agreement to provide library service on a cooperative basis or it can be a consolidated system in which libraries join together to form a single library. To accommodate the unusual requirements of Chicago, the law provides that a system may also be a single library serving a city of over 500,000 people.

Administration of the law is the responsibility of the State Librarian. He and his staff, with advice from the Advisory Committee of the State Library, are to formulate rules and regulations necessary to achieve the objectives of the law which are stated as follows:

a) Provide library service for every citizen in the state by extending library facilities to areas not now served.

b) Provide library materials for student needs at every educational level.

c) Provide adequate library materials to satisfy the reference and research needs of the people in this state.

d) Provide an adequate staff of professionally trained librarians for the state.

e) Provide an adequate stock of books and other materials sufficient in size and varied in kind and subject matter to satisfy the library needs of the people of this state.

f) Provide adequate library outlets and facilities convenient in time and place to serve the people of this state.

g) Encourage existing and new libraries to develop library systems serving a sufficiently large population to support adequate library service at reasonable cost.

h) Foster the economic and efficient utilization of public funds.

i) Promote the full utilization of local pride, responsibility, initiative and support of library service and at the same time employ state aid as a supplement to local support.

Establishment of a library system requires the approval of the boards of directors of the participating libraries, after which a board of directors for the system is elected. This board is required to submit an application to the State Librarian which includes a plan of service stating the purposes for which the system is being established and the ways in which these purposes will be accomplished. The application is reviewed by the Advisory Committee and sent to the

State Librarian for action. Conditional approval can be granted to systems serving a minimum of 50,000 people if the plan shows how the 150,000 population requirement can be met within five years.

The system board of directors must be composed of at least five members but no more than 15 members chosen from the boards of the participating libraries. The manner of election, provisions for filling vacancies, and the terms of office are decided by the member libraries at a joint meeting, except that no director may serve more than a total of six years. The Chicago System is governed by the board of the Chicago Public Library.

The system boards have the power to develop the plan of service, control the expenditure of funds, make and adopt by-laws, purchase or lease grounds and buildings, construct buildings, appoint and remove staff and fix their salaries, contract with other libraries for receiving or furnishing service, amend and alter the plan of service subject to the approval of the State Librarian, and accumulate special reserve funds to be used for the acquisition of property or the construction of buildings.

The law includes the provisions for equalization aid, establishment grants, per capita and area grants as recommended in the plan with one change. The area grant was changed to provide $5.00 per square mile for systems whose area is in one county and $15.00 per square mile if the area served is in two or more counties.

Membership in a system is open to any tax-supported public library if approval of the application is given by the system board and the State Librarian.

Once approved and in operation, systems remain under the supervision of the State Librarian who has the power to revoke approval if he finds that a system is not conforming to the plan of service or to the Rules and Regulations.

Another check in the law applies to the member libraries. Once a library joins a system it may not reduce its tax levy below the average of what it was for the three years prior to the establishment of the system. Should a library do this the annual grants to the system are reduced by 25 percent until the levy is restored to its former level.

The final provision of the original law gives the State Librarian the power to designate the four reference centers subject to the approval of their governing boards.

Since 1965 a section has been added to the law to set forth the procedures to be followed in case of the termination of a library system.

Rules and regulations.--In the process of organizing the systems, librarians and trustees were guided in part by the Rules and Regulations for: Library Systems and State Aid formulated by the Illinois State Library staff and the Advisory Committees.[15] These regulations set forth the provisions of the law that must be met plus some needed interpretations of the law.

Rule I states again the minimum population (150,000) and area requirements (4,000 square miles) for a system. It specifies also that the territory in the proposed area of service must be contiguous unless permission is granted by the State Librarian.

Three conditions apply to the headquarters library; it must have 100,000 volumes or a plan to acquire them, have adequate staff to meet its functions in the service area, and be open at least 60 hours per week. Unfortunately, there is no statement either in the law or in the Rules and Regulations as to what the exact role of the headquarters library is to be. This has led to confusion and to a variety of arrangements.

Included in Rule I is a very clear statement of the requirement that the plan must provide for the free use of the total resources within the system area by all residents holding library cards of any participating libraries.

Rule III contains two requirements regarding the staff for the library systems. The first is that there must be four professional librarians engaged in system services in those systems which are conditionally approved and six in those with full approval. A professional librarian is defined as someone who has a degree from an accredited library school or a person who has a Bachelor's degree and had some library training after or as a part of the undergraduate training; he may also be a person who has been engaged in the satisfactory performance of professional library activities for a period of not less than five years. The other requirement is that the system employ a financial clerk to work under the administration of the system but to be accountable to the system board.

It was a serious concern of those who devised the Rules and Regulations that the system book collection be assembled and located to provide maximum use. Plans which called for locating the book collection in more than one location were required to show that this would not weaken the collection or the quality of the service given. Where a dual location is used the plan of service must provide for the creation of a union list of holdings. Systems are required to add 4,000 new titles to the collection each year. Not more than 20 percent of these titles may be fiction and not more than 20 percent may be juvenile titles.

Any expansion of system territory must be approved by the State Librarian. Territory to be added must be contiguous and unclaimed by any other system.

Withdrawal from a system is possible at the end of any fiscal year provided that written notice has been given 90 days prior to the end of the year. Approval of the request must come from the State Librarian who may withhold approval if the withdrawal threatens the existence of the system. In such a case withdrawal is postponed until the system has had an opportunity to take steps necessary to preserve itself.

The remaining provisions of the Rules and Regulations specify the manner of payment of the grants and the records and reports which the system must furnish to the State Librarian.

Application and approval.--Much of the planning for systems in several areas of the state had been done prior to the passage of the law. After the bill had become law and after the Rules and Regulations and other guidelines had been furnished, it was only a short time before the applications began to be filed. The first application was received from Chicago on November 24, 1965. By February 24, 1966, eight more applications had been filed and approved. By the end of May, 1966, a total of 15 applications had been received.

At the present time 18 library systems are in operation in Illinois. Earlier consideration of establishing a nineteenth system has been abandoned and 18 will be the total number of systems to be formed. Development has been more rapid than anticipated, and interest among the libraries of the state has been great. The systems vary greatly in the areas they serve in terms of population and geographic characteristics and in the resources available within their territories. As of now about 423 or 84.7 percent of the state's tax-supported libraries have elected to join a system. This means that 76 or 15.3 percent of the eligible libraries have not joined a system since the enactment of the law in August, 1965, and since the beginning of operation of the final system in February, 1968.

References to Chapter I

[1] "An act to provide a program of state grants to aid in the establishment of a network of public library systems, and making appropriations therefor." *Illinois Revised Statutes*, 1967, chapter 81, sections 111-123.

[2] Charles A. Bunge, "Statewide Public Library Surveys and Plans, 1944-1964," *ALA Bulletin*, 59 (May, 1965), 464-474.

[3] New York, State Department of Education, Division of Evaluation, *Emerging Library Systems, the 1963-66 Evaluation of the New York State Public Library System* (Albany, New York, 1967).

[4] Lowell Martin, *Library Service in Pennsylvania, Present and Proposed; a Survey Commissioned by the Pennsylvania State Librarian at the Request of the Honorable George M. Leader, Governor of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania* (Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania State Library, 1958).

[5] Galen E. Rike, *Statewide Library Surveys and Development Plans: An Annotated Bibliography, 1956-1967*, Research Series No. 14 (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois State Library, 1968).

[6] "Total Number of Libraries in Illinois," *Illinois Libraries*, 50 (October, 1968), 755.

[7] Helene H. Rogers, "Reading Material for Every Citizen in Illinois," *Illinois Libraries*, 22 (March, 1940), 3-4.

[8] Gretchen Knief Schenk, *Survey of Extension Activities of the Illinois State Library - May 16-31, 1956*, Occasional Papers No. 46 (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Library School, 1956), p. 8-9.

[9] "Library Services Act Chronology," *Illinois Libraries*, 47 (January, 1965), 14.

[10] Phyllis Maggeroli, "A Message from the President," Conference Proceedings of the Illinois Library Association, 1961, *Illinois Libraries*, 44 (March, 1962), 247-8.

[11] Phyllis Maggeroli, "Report of the President," Conference Proceedings of the Illinois Library Association, 1962, *Illinois Libraries*, 45 (March, 1963), 116-7.

[12] Robert H. Rohlf, A Plan for Public Library Development in Illinois (Aurora, Illinois: Illinois Library Association, 1963).

[13] Donald E. Wright, "Library Legislation--the Illinois Example," Illinois Libraries, 49 (January, 1967), 13.

[14] This and the following discussion of the provisions of the law is based on "An act to provide a program of state grants to aid in the establishment and development of a network of public library systems, and making appropriations therefor." Illinois Revised Statutes, 1967, chapter 81, sections 111-123.

[15] Rules and Regulations for: Library Systems and State Aid (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois State Library, 1965).

CHAPTER II

RELATED RESEARCH

The development of public library systems on a large scale is still relatively new. As a result there has been comparatively little systematic research relating to the problems encountered in their establishment. Most of the difficulties faced, however, are not new and have long been familiar to those who have been engaged in library extension work and to those who have urged more cooperation among libraries and the creation of larger units of service.

Schenk, writing in 1954, summarized some of the problems which faced library leaders in their attempts to establish some form of regional organization for library service. The inexperience of local units in working with other libraries, a long tradition of emphasis on the local library, and a natural fear of the unknown made it difficult to convince them of the benefits which could come from some form of cooperative regional organization. In some places the expense and difficulty of providing service to large, sparsely populated areas with poor roads and inadequate transportation were very practical obstacles to be overcome. Other factors which she felt contributed to the defeat of many campaigns which would move toward some kind of regionalization were conflicting personalities, poor leadership, ineffectiveness of state librarians, ill will of trustees, county officers and officials, and a lack of prestige of librarians.[1]

A 1957 report of the New York Commissioner of Education's Committee on Library Service listed two categories of obstacles to regional plans, those encountered at the local level and those inherent in the plan itself. Those encountered at the local level were: 1) a lack of understanding of the purposes and methods of achieving the statewide goal of improving and extending library service to all through the formation of systems of libraries; 2) the attitude of many trustees and librarians that their library is giving good service now and does not need improving; 3) a fear of losing local autonomy; and 4) a lack of lay and professional leadership to work for the establishment of systems in various parts of the state. Obstacles inherent in the plan were also given: 1) insistence on the county as the only organizational unit of these library programs; it was discovered that depending on the governing boards of the counties to take the action required to establish multi-county systems resulted in long delays and raised serious problems of financing and governing the systems; 2) inadequacy of state aid to constitute sufficient incentive in terms of current price levels; without sufficient financial reward there was little likelihood that libraries would go to the effort to establish cooperative systems; 3) the problem of equity in benefits accruing to existing libraries and to unserved areas and between strong and weak libraries; a natural tendency exists in any plan aimed at improving and extending service to begin where little or no service exists and unless state aid is adequate to meet the requirements of minimum service to unserved areas, and at the same time to offer equitable aid to existing libraries, serious problems arise; 4) the fear that unserved or poorly served areas will drain good libraries; since most system plans include the practice of the patron being able to borrow from any library within the area of the system, the better libraries have a natural fear that they will be forced to expand the area they serve without receiving any benefits in return; 5) the need for a strong central library as the core of a system combined with a lack of incentive for libraries to accept this responsibility; in the first instance many areas lack a library of sufficient size and quality to serve as the center of a system, and in the second, unless there is some form of compensation for the central library a serious inequity is created; 6) the practice of offering direct public library service, either by using bookmobiles or deposit stations, administered by some central agency of a federation of libraries, raises again the problem of equity with regard to tax support for library service and creates questions as to where the responsibility for such service rests; and 7) the basing of state aid on specific materials and services such as books and centralized processing, rather than on a more flexible basis which would take into account a wider range of needs and problems.[2]

Alma Jacobs, writing about problems in Montana, shows how one proposal for a system of six regional libraries ran into the problem of localism. The plan became synonymous with the loss of local autonomy, and in some instances the centers proposed were not local trading centers and in others there was a long history of rivalry between cities which were expected to pool their resources.[3] Federations of libraries have been suggested as a means of getting around the fear of local libraries losing their identity, a fear brought on by the fact that many small and medium sized libraries are well established units of local government having vested property rights and a long tradition of local autonomy.

Prentiss, reporting more recently on some of the problems encountered in New York State, listed several problems that had to be faced in any plan of system development; a basic problem is that of inequity of support which communities give to their libraries. He felt that the natural tendency in this situation is to do more for the poorly supported libraries or in effect for communities which have done less for themselves. There is a corresponding fear among the larger, better supported libraries that they will be penalized for being progressive, by being required to extend service to all the residents of a system area. He felt that progress was also slowed by the high degree of autonomy of local libraries and by their orientation to their own communities rather than to a system area. System development could also be hampered by a level of state aid too low to provide effective service.[4]

Robert Rohlf surveyed many libraries, librarians and trustees when he was preparing the Illinois Plan for Public Library Development and discovered that most trustees feared a loss of local autonomy whenever any kind of cooperative arrangement was mentioned. In addition most preferred to assume that local service was adequate rather than to question its efficiency.[5] He also cites the lack of leadership on the part of librarians who failed to take the first step, which is to convince village and city officials that the cooperative efforts as proved successful in other states are a way to give the taxpayer a much greater return on his dollar. Rohlf was frequently asked if there would be any incentive for local libraries to increase library taxes and to strengthen local library service, when the state would provide more books as they were needed and without charge.

Michalak, in a case study of Lincoln Trail Libraries in Illinois interviewed librarians and trustees of member libraries in an attempt to determine what their attitudes were toward the system and toward certain political implications of the system. The main reasons given for initial opposition to joining the system were a fear of loss of local identity and autonomy and considerable skepticism among some of the smaller libraries that their needs would be met by the system. This skepticism was accompanied by a feeling of antagonism toward the larger libraries which were the chief proponents of the plan. The fear of a loss of autonomy was strongest among the libraries that served fewer than 3,000 people. It was also in this group that Michalak found the strongest feeling of being forced to join the system. Libraries in the middle range, serving from 3,000 to 10,000 people, also feared a loss of autonomy but felt somewhat more independent and were slower to make the decision to join. The three libraries serving over 10,000 people were instrumental in establishing the system and showed little concern over a loss of control of their operations.[6]

The second strongest concern discovered by Michalak was a general negative feeling about the participation of the state and federal governments in the program. State aid or state sponsorship of a program is frequently equated with state control in the thinking of many Illinois communities. Other reasons given for initial opposition were a fear of loss of freedom in book selection, a fear of an overall tax increase because of the increased expenditures by the state, a belief that systems would be financially wasteful, a feeling that systems were being used to create more jobs and larger salaries for librarians, opposition to reciprocal borrowing, and a general opposition to state and federal aid. Many of these fears and objections were overcome within a year of operation of the system, but initial approval of membership was done in several cases with considerable reservation.

The forces which motivated the librarians and trustees to join the system were the possibility of getting additional books and materials and the hope that by joining a system the library would remain eligible to receive books from the State Library. During the period that the system plan was being promoted, the impression was gained by some librarians that the State Library would cease to lend materials to libraries unless they were system members. While this is not a correct interpretation of the State Library's policy, it is true that the intention was to shift to the systems the chief responsibility for supplying materials to local libraries. Since the State Library had been an important, if not the chief, outside source of books for some of these libraries, the possibility of losing this source was sufficient to make them decide in favor of system membership. Some librarians and trustees expressed the feeling that they were given no alternative and in effect were being forced to join the system. A less important factor but one which was mentioned by some respondents was that as long as the money was being spent, the library might as well take the action necessary to guarantee that it would get its share.

Unfortunately Michalak's study did not deal to any great extent with libraries that were not members of the system. Only two non-members were considered, so little comparison is possible. The only information gained on these two cases was that there was a fear of a loss of autonomy and that these libraries were somewhat less well supported than the others.

Nash, in studying the characteristics of administrators of public libraries in Illinois in various communications categories in 1964, asked respondents in four categories (isolate, localite, library localite and library cosmopolite) to indicate their degree of favor toward larger units of service. He found overall only a moderately favorable to favorable attitude toward larger units, and discovered no significant differences among the four groups. Apparently in all of the groups there were opposing forces acting on the librarians.[7] It must be remembered, however, that little concrete work had been done on larger units in Illinois at the time of Nash's study, so the reaction of some of the librarians may have been to an idea that was still quite nebulous.

A broad area of research which has application to some of the questions asked in this study is the diffusion of innovation. Katz best characterizes the diffusion process as the:

> (1) 'acceptance', (2) over 'time', (3) of some specific item - an 'idea or practice', (4) by individuals, groups or other 'adopting units', linked (5) to specific 'channels' of communications, (6) to a 'social structure' and (7) to a given system of values, or 'culture'.[8]

Katz states that few studies have incorporated all of these elements, and that different areas of research have tended to concentrate on one or another of the elements.

While the diffusion process is difficult to study and is not the model for this study, some of the findings of the large number of diffusion studies are of interest. Rogers provides the best summary of these studies and lists 52 major conclusions reached in the course of these studies. A few of these conclusions are listed here:

> Earlier adopters are more cosmopolite than later adopters.
> Earlier adopters are younger than later adopters.
> The extent of promotional efforts by change agents is directly related to the rate of adoption of an innovation.
> There is little evidence that lack of knowledge about innovations actually delays their adoption.
> Innovativeness of individuals is related to a modern rather than a traditional orientation.
> Earlier adopters have more opinion leadership than later adopters.[9]

One of the most controversial and intensively studied innovations has been the fluoridation of drinking water. Gamson and Irons made a study of community characteristics as they related to the outcome of the fluoridation vote; these characteristics included population, age, education, income, population growth, size of vote and form of government. Their general conclusion is that the relationship between the different variables and the outcome on the vote are quite weak. No more than about 10 percent of the variance in the vote is accounted for by any single variable. One possible explanation given is that the specific events occurring within a community are more crucial determinants of the outcome than any of the relatively fixed attributes such as age or education.[10]

While the diffusion model presents some interesting possibilities for the study of library innovations, there are certain difficulties in applying it to the development and acceptance of library systems. First, the concept of library systems is complex; it does not involve the adoption of a single, specific and distinct practice or idea, but is a complex of practices which involve a change in the basic philosophy of library service. Another difficulty is that the diffusion process is best studied from the beginning of the introduction of an innovation rather than in an ex post facto fashion. Library system development is already too far advanced for the diffusion model to be used most effectively.

Similar to the problems faced in the organization of larger units for libraries are those which educational leaders encountered in the reorganization of school districts into larger units. In Illinois, for example, prior to 1947 there were over 11,000 independent districts, many of which operated no schools but paid tuition in order to send their children to schools in neighboring districts. In 1947 the state legislature passed permissive legislation authorizing the establishment of community school districts. Between 1947 and 1949 some 200 community unit districts were created resulting in the elimination of over 5,000 districts.[11] By 1965 the total number of districts had been reduced to 1,390.[12]

McLure and Stone, in their study of leadership in the reorganization of school districts, report that without state legislative leadership little reorganization would have taken place. Local initiative to create larger and more efficient units was not sufficient to get the job done. They also tentatively conclude that

> failure to reorganize lies less in the forces of opposition than in the strength of the positive motivating forces. Objections seem to dissolve, fade away, or become compromised when positive programs of convincing nature are developed.[13]

When asked to list the factors which inhibited the reorganization, leaders in both reorganized and unreorganized areas then agreed that

> fears of the people with reference to transportation, losing the local elementary school, losing local control, and lack of understanding as to just what educational advantages would be gained through reorganization appear to be inhibiting factors of great strength.[14]

Factors listed by the leaders which were judged to be of moderate importance were the fear of increased costs of education, fear that the loss of the local attendance center would have a destructive effect on the community, fear of the possibility that the children would receive less personal attention in a larger attendance center, resistance of rural groups to increasing tax rates, poor roads, disparities between rural and urban property assessments, and fear of losing the local high school.

A third group of factors, only average to weak in strength, were the fear that the child would lose interest in rural life, suspicion between rural and urban groups about securing representation on the school board, fear among teachers regarding loss of tenure, and inability to finance building and equipment required in the organization.

Considered as factors of weak influence were the disposition of outstanding school indebtedness in the old districts, and resistance of wealthy areas to incorporating areas of low assessment and large numbers of children.

Among the most potent of the motivating factors were listed the desire to get a better educational program, to get a broader program, to provide better buildings and equipment, and to improve the elementary schools.

Next in potency among the motivating factors were the desire to make more efficient use of the money available for education, to attract and keep better teachers, to obtain more efficient use of the buildings and equipment, and to improve the financial ability of the school districts.

Of average strength were listed the desire to take advantage of the financial benefits of the state aid law, to improve the schools so that they would in turn have a greater capacity to contribute to the improvement of the community, to increase the possibility of road improvement, to obtain more uniformity in the school tax, to eliminate harmful competition between elementary and high schools by providing one continuous program, and to unify small communities into stronger and more self-sufficient units.

Weak factors were the desire to insure the retention of the local high school and of the existing elementary school, to eliminate conflicts among different boards of education, and to get a stronger district in which local control is more likely to thrive.

Very weak motivating factors were the desire to get fewer districts in order to simplify the supervisory responsibilities of the state superintendent's office, and to reorganize the functions of the county superintendent of schools so that special services could be provided at lower costs.

Powers, in studying the creation of unilateral joint agreement districts, found three attitudes that promoted the greatest resistance to change among school board members and superintendents; these were fear of increased costs, the desire to maintain prior loyalties and traditions, and the lack of information to understand the need for the change.[15]

A study of the resistance to school district reorganization in metropolitan areas by Zimmer and Hawley concentrated on the differences between the suburban areas and the central city. They discovered that the greatest resistance came from the suburban areas where both residents and school officials expressed the fear of a loss of autonomy. In addition school officials feared that in any kind of reorganization they would find themselves in a less favorable position than the powerful central city officials.[16]

The problems which schools and libraries face in reorganization are repeated in numerous other areas of local government. Consolidation of governmental units is difficult to secure, but at the same time many communities find it hard to provide even some of the essential services such as water, sanitation, and public health. The difficulties faced by schools and libraries are magnified many times when the merging of units of government is proposed. A common means used to provide services without requiring the consolidation of governments is the creation of special districts for specific functions. Thus sanitary districts, health districts and a variety of others are charged with providing a specific service for an area which usually cuts across community boundaries, and are given the power to levy a tax. Special districts avoid the delays certain to be experienced in consolidation but have the advantage of creating another governmental unit and taxing body, adding further to the complexity of local governmental structures.

Compared to the difficulties of reorganizing school districts and local governments, the problems encountered in the establishment of library systems in Illinois seem minor, since participation is voluntary, withdrawal is permitted, no direct tax is required, and no consolidation is necessary. These advantages, no doubt, explain the success that has been achieved, but at the same time makes non-participation more perplexing. Under these conditions what factors inhibit libraries from joining or from fully using the system services? This basic question provides the focus for this study.

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CHAPTER III

DEMOGRAPHIC, SERVICE, AND ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF MEMBER AND NON-MEMBER LIBRARIES

McLure and Stone's suggestion[1] that administrative reorganization depends more on the strength of positive motivating forces than on the potential forces of opposition is clearly reinforced by the successful introduction of the library system plan in Illinois. The plan was developed after consultation with numerous librarians and trustees and had the support of library, educational, and civic organizations. The plan was well publicized among librarians and trustees through meetings and printed matter, and those who spoke to interested groups were prepared to tell of the advantages of the plan as well as to meet possible objections. The effectiveness of the presentation of the plan is evidenced by the large percentage of libraries which have joined systems.

Presently, three and a half years after the enactment of the system law, approximately 86 percent of the state's tax supported public libraries are system members. In view of the widespread acceptance of library system membership, why do a small percentage of tax supported public libraries remain outside systems? The nature of these non-participating libraries and their reasons for not joining systems provide the focus for this study.

It has been suggested that the libraries most likely to join systems will be the larger, better supported libraries. The reasoning behind this is that as libraries increase in size and level of financial support, there will be an accompanying increase in the professional training and orientation of the staff and, as a result, a greater interest in improving and extending service by means of the system. Conversely, as libraries decrease in size, there will be less adequately trained staff with a more local than professional orientation and hence, less interest in cooperative programs proposed from outside the community.

A set of opposing hypotheses can also be posited. As libraries increase in size and degree of support, they become more self-sufficient and have less need for the supplementary services of the system and thus will be less likely to join.

Following this reasoning it would be the smaller, less adequate libraries that would have most need for the system services and would be most likely to respond favorably to the possibility of system membership.

While it is unlikely that any single reason can be isolated which determines a library board's decision not to become a system member, it is possible to look at libraries in terms of size and level of support to at least determine whether resistance to system membership is most common among the small or the large libraries of the state, the poorly supported or the well-supported. This chapter presents a comparison of system members and non-members in terms of population served, and selected service and support variables in relation to the amount of time taken to make the decision to join a system.[2] From this approach it is hoped that some very simple and general conclusions can be drawn about what kinds of libraries, in terms of these variables, are most likely to show resistance to library system membership.

Method

From the statistical issue of Illinois Libraries, October, 1968, the following eleven items were selected as measures of population, service and financial support, and the libraries classified by size for each of them:

1) Population served
2) Assessed valuation
3) Tax rate
4) Hours open per week
5) Number of books
6) Number of volumes added
7) Total circulation
8) Total income
9) Expenditures for salaries
10) Expenditures for materials
11) Total expenditures

The classifications of size are arbitrary, but were selected on the basis of the distribution of Illinois libraries rather than on national standards of size. With regard to population, small libraries are those serving under 10,000 people; medium sized libraries are those serving between 10,000 and 20,000 people and large libraries are those serving over 20,000 people. While few would consider a library serving 20,000 people a large library, it was necessary to put the figure this low in order to obtain large enough numbers in each of the classifications. It must be remembered that if the city of Chicago is excluded, tax-supported libraries in Illinois serve an average population of about 9,000 people.

Table 1 shows the limits set for each of the size groups on the eleven items selected.

TABLE 1

CATEGORY SIZE LIMITS FOR ELEVEN MEASURES OF POPULATION, SERVICE, AND FINANCIAL SUPPORT

Item	Small	Medium	Large
Population	0-9,999	10-19,999	20,000+
Assessed valuation	0-24,999,000	25-49,999,999	50,000,000+
Tax rate*	0-.049	.05-.09	.10+
Hours open per week	0-20	21-40	40+
Number of volumes	0-14,999	15,000-29,999	40,000+
Volumes added	0-1,499	1,500-3,999	4,000+
Circulation	0-49,999	50,000-99,999	100,000+
Total Income	0-24,999	25,000-69,999	70,000+
Expenditures for salaries	0-14,999	15,000-29,999	30,000+
Expenditures for materials	0-4,999	5,000-14,999	15,000+
Total expenditures	0-24,999	25,000-69,999	70,000+

*Tax rate is used here to indicate the level at which a library is supported in relation to the maximum support available; it is not strictly a measure of size.

The population figures reported are mostly from the 1960 census; in a few cases more recent estimates are provided. The assessed valuation is for 1966, since Illinois libraries are required to submit budget requests one year in advance of the fiscal year during which the tax money is collected and deposited in the library fund. The remaining figures are for the library fiscal year, May 1, 1967 - April 30, 1968.

The second step in this process was to divide Illinois' tax-supported libraries into three groups according to the amount of time taken before they decided to join a system:

1) Early joiners are those libraries which were charter members of a system and whose names appeared on the original application for establishment submitted to the State Library;

2) Middle joiners are those libraries which joined a system within 34 months of the beginning of system operation;

3) Late and non-joiners include libraries which waited over 34 months before joining or which have not yet joined.

This classification provides categories of the following sizes:

Early joiners	286
Middle joiners	135
Late and non-joiners	65
	476

Library systems in Illinois are established only after their applications are approved by the State Librarian. This original application contained the names of the libraries which had indicated a desire to be system members. It is these libraries which are considered early joiners in this study. Since library systems were organized and approved over a period of about a year, the category of early joiners contains libraries which signed resolutions as much as a year apart. This method was chosen to be sure that libraries actually had an opportunity to join a system; it means, however, that in the category of early joiners there are libraries which may have devoted quite varying amounts of time to the evaluation of the idea of system membership. Since it is difficult to establish the exact period which each library took for evaluation and adoption, the date of the original application is used to distinguish early joiners.

The line between early joiners and middle joiners within each system is not precise. Some middle joiners elected to join almost immediately after the date of the original application and might properly be considered early joiners. In some cases the meeting of the library board may not have fallen in time for them to submit their resolution in time for inclusion in the original application. It was felt, however, that the number of such instances would be quite small, and that the dividing line chosen would provide a fairly clear differentiation of the two groups.

The final group, late and non-joiners, is quite distinct and includes libraries which waited over 34 months before joining and libraries which have not yet joined. In the adoption of some innovations a period of three years might not be considered a particularly long time, but because of the rapid rate at which libraries have become system members and because of the wide publicity given systems, an evaluation period of 34 months can be considered an indication of considerable resistance to the idea.

The classification of libraries by time of joining does not assume that there was no resistance to membership among early joiners or that resistance does not still exist to some degree among libraries that have joined. The classification does imply, however, that resistance does increase with the time taken to make the decision to join.

One individual library and five groups of libraries were omitted from consideration: 1) under the Illinois Plan the Chicago Public Library is a system in itself, but because of its unusual nature it was not included here; 2) libraries which have been formed very recently, and which have had little opportunity to begin actual operation or to consider system membership; 3) libraries in the Springfield area where system formation had been under consideration for some time and where approval of applications for membership from some libraries had been withheld pending a final decision on the formation of a nineteenth system; 4) libraries for which statistical information was so incomplete as to make classification impossible; 5) libraries which contract for service and have no need individually to join systems; and 6) association and endowed libraries which are not eligible for system membership. A total of 23 tax-supported libraries and 24 non-tax-supported libraries were eliminated for one or another of these reasons.

Findings

While the tests used yielded significant chi-square values for all of the eleven variables and significant gamma coefficient scores for nine of the eleven variables, the scores obtained are not sufficiently strong to justify any far-reaching conclusions.

The gamma scores for population and number of books owned are not significant and those for assessed valuation and number of hours open per week are extremely weak. Only for the measures of financial support are scores obtained which can be considered to be of moderate strength.

Only among the early and middle joiners is a consistent pattern discernible. For most of the eleven items it is the libraries in the large category that are most prominent among the early joiners; they are followed by libraries in the medium and small categories. Among the middle joiners it is the libraries in the small category that constitute the largest percentage, followed by medium and large libraries.

TABLE 2

ADJUSTED CHI-SQUARE AND GAMMA COEFFICIENTS FOR ELEVEN MEASURES OF POPULATION, SERVICE, AND FINANCIAL SUPPORT

		Adj. X^2	Gammas
1.	Population	14.78*	-.17
2.	Assessed valuation	16.58*	-.18*
3.	Tax rate	13.69*	-.21*
4.	Hours open per week	28.14*	-.17*
5.	Number of books	27.99*	-.11
6.	Number of volumes added	19.96*	-.31*
7.	Total circulation	18.50*	-.25*
8.	Total income	24.31*	-.32*
9.	Expenditures for salaries	14.74*	-.28*
10.	Expenditures for materials	13.82*	-.27*
11.	Total expenditures	19.94*	-.33*

*Significant at .05
df = 4

Late and non-joiners show no consistent pattern, which probably explains the weakness of the gamma scores. The libraries in this category show a wide range on the measures of population served and on the measures of quality of service and level of financial support. It must be concluded, therefore, that the measures used here are not sufficient to explain the action that libraries will take with regard to system membership. This is not to say that the measures used here are unimportant but simply that they alone are not sufficient to explain the action of local libraries. The fact that early and middle joiners show a fairly consistent pattern suggests that size, with regard to population served and level of support, is quite important but that additional variables need to be considered.

The following analysis of the variables used is presented in order to suggest additional factors that might be of importance and to point out some of the shortcomings of the variables used here.

Population

The population that libraries serve is commonly used to classify libraries by size. While population served is a convenient way of grouping libraries, it is dangerous to impute a fixed set of characteristics to libraries on the basis of the population they serve. When libraries of various population size groups are grouped by the time they took to join library systems, the larger libraries tend to be among the early joiners, followed by medium and small libraries. Middle joiners show an opposite trend, moving from the small libraries to the larger. Late and non-joiners show no consistent pattern; they are just as likely to serve large as small populations. The gamma coefficient (-.17) while significant, is not strong, indicating that population alone is not a sufficient basis for predicting system membership.

Libraries which serve large populations were an important element in system organization, even though population served does not explain the action of all of the libraries. The pattern shown by the early and middle joiners suggests at least two alternative explanations. In the organization of the systems it was the large libraries that the organizers of systems looked to for leadership in each of the several areas where systems might be organized. Given this leadership role, it is natural that a large proportion of the large libraries would be among the early system joiners. It is also possible that these libraries in turn had an influence on the smaller libraries around them, either by actively recruiting them for system membership or by pulling them along as satellite communities.

Another possible factor in operation here is an economic one. Annual aid to library systems is based on area and per capita grants, and in almost all the systems the per capita grants are the most important. Thus it was very natural for system organizers to try to attract the large population centers first in order to gain maximum financial support. This tendency is reinforced by the minimum population requirements which the state established for library systems, again making densely populated areas more attractive members.

It might also be speculated that the original hypothesis that larger libraries have a stronger professional than local orientation and are therefore, more likely to respond favorably to systems, does hold some truth, although as indicated, population alone is not a sure indicator of this.

Service Variables

Three measures were used to determine if the kind of service a library provides and the amount of use a library gets would make any distinction among early-joiners, middle-joiners and late and non-joiners. Three items reported in Illinois Libraries were used as measures of service: the number of hours a library is open each week, the number of books the library has, and the total circulation of the library. These are obviously very incomplete measures of amount and, particularly, quality of service, but they do provide some measure of a library's interest in and ability to provide service.

Number of hours open per week.--The number of hours that libraries are open each week ranges from a low of two to a high of 77 among Illinois' tax supported public libraries. The number of hours that a library is open each week can be considered a measure of the quality of service that is given and of the community's interest in supporting library service. The desire to provide service is severely restricted in many cases, however, by the financial ability of the community to provide the staff required for keeping the library open. It was felt that libraries with very limited financial resources would be able to keep the library open a fair number of hours by utilizing volunteer help. This is not an unreasonable assumption since many of the small libraries in the state had their beginnings as volunteer libraries. It was felt, therefore, that a library with strong community support would be open more hours and that this would reflect an interest in library service and would affect attitudes toward system membership.

Such does not prove to be the case. The gamma coefficient (-.17) while significant, is extremely weak. Early joiners tend to be the libraries offering 40 or more hours of service each week. Since this is the same pattern shown by the population variable, it may be that hours open is a simple reflection of the ability of the library to provide staff and is not an important indicator of community attitudes. In any case, by itself it does nothing to explain the action of non-members.

Number of books.--In joining a system a library was required to agree to reciprocal borrowing and the sharing of resources with patrons from other communities within the system area. Initially there was considerable fear expressed that this would mean a drain on the libraries with strong collections and would constitute an inhibiting factor with regard to system membership. This fear was not confined to large libraries, but was felt as well among libraries with medium and quite small collections.

As with the desirability of having large population centers as system members, it was desirable that the libraries with large book collections be system members in order to add to the pool of materials available within the system. This resulted in efforts to recruit the libraries with large collections into system membership.

When related to time of joining, size of book collection is not a significant variable (gamma -.11). Libraries with large collections are most prominent among the early joiners but there is no consistent pattern among the middle and late joiners. The fact that this turned out to be a weak measure is not surprising and may be due to several reasons. Libraries with large collections tend to be those which have been at least moderately supported over a period of years, enabling the building of fairly large collections. Among smaller libraries the number of books owned is frequently a misleading statistic because of the variety of methods of counting and the accuracy of the records kept. In addition, small libraries are frequently able to accumulate fairly large book collections by relying heavily on gifts and by adopting a policy of not discarding. Thus size of book collection may give little indication of the quality of the collection or of continuing efforts to provide financial support or efforts to build strong collections.

It is possible to say that size of book collection still might provide a clue in the case of libraries with large collections that have not joined systems.

Total circulation.--This is the last of the service measures used and must be viewed with some caution since it is a figure subject to numerous counting and reporting errors. The gamma (-.25) is somewhat stronger than for previous variables, but at best can be considered to be only moderately strong. Among early joiners there is a tendency for libraries with high circulation to be among the leaders in system joining. Middle joiners are more likely to be among the small category and non-joiners show the same scattering as for the previous variables.

The pattern shown by using circulation as a means of classifying libraries may be a reflection of the population served, since the size of the population which has access to a library will be a prime determinant of total circulation.

Economic Variables

The financial support a library receives is obviously the major determinant of the nature of the library program. Money available governs the facilities and staff to be provided and the service which will be possible. The low tax base of so many local libraries, combined with an increasingly heavy property tax burden, have been major obstacles to adequate local support of libraries. Sixty-six percent of the 476 libraries included in this analysis have assessed valuations of less than $25,000,000. A tax levy of .12, the legal maximum without a referendum, on such an assessed valuation would yield an annual income of $30,000, far below what is considered adequate for full library service. Only 20 percent of the libraries considered taxed at .10 or over, so the overall financial resources available at the local level are severely limited. This, of course, is one of the basic problems that the system plan was designed to overcome by providing funds to supplement materials and services at the local level. The question asked here is what effect does the financial resources of the library have on system membership; as libraries receive better support, are they more or less likely to become system members? Seven measures were considered as indicators of potential and actual financial support; assessed valuation, tax rate, volumes added during the year, total income, expenditures for salaries and materials, and total expenditures.

Except for assessed valuation, the measures are determined by the library board and are directly related. The tax rate which is set for the library obviously determines the amount of tax income which will be available for salaries, materials and other operating expenses.

Tax rate.--The level at which a community taxes for library purposes is one of the few commonly available measures of its willingness to support library service. Although the law now establishes the library board as the sole determiner of the amount of money the library requires, actual practice is quite different. In the past, library boards were required to submit to the city council or village board a request for funds which had to be approved before the levy was set. While technically this is no longer the case, tradition, a general sensitivity to increases in levels of spending, and some confusion concerning the law itself all tend to maintain the old arrangement rather than setting the library board as a separate taxing body. For this reason the tax rate which is levied is a reflection of more than the library board's willingness or efforts to acquire financial support for library service. It must be viewed as more of a community measure rather than as a measure of the efforts of an individual board.

In one way the tax rate is a better indicator of attitudes toward library service than the total income, since maximum income may depend on the level of the assessed valuation. Libraries with very small incomes may be taxing at the maximum rate permitted but be handicapped by inadequate assessed valuation.

A requirement which system membership imposes is that libraries not decrease the tax rate to an amount below the level of the average for the three years preceding system membership. For libraries which may want to be able to reduce rates from one year to the next, depending on whether funds are available from some other source, this may pose an obstacle; the possibility seems remote, however, since virtually all libraries receive most of their income from taxes.

The use of the tax rate as a measure of the willingness to support service has some shortcomings. Taking the tax rate for a single year does not indicate the extent of the efforts made over a period of years. Library boards may make substantial efforts to increase the rate from one year to the next or they may be content to operate with a relatively fixed rate hoping that increases in assessed valuation will be sufficient to guarantee the library some small increase each year. There is also the possibility that a relatively high tax rate may be sufficient only to maintain the status quo, rather than provide for any improvements. Thus, as used here, tax rate is a limited measure.

Most Illinois libraries have tax rates between .05 percent and .09 percent which would have to be considered moderate to fairly high. Early system joiners are slightly more likely to be in the high category of tax rates, those above .10 percent. This is not as strong a tendency (-.18) as for some of the other variables due probably to the fact that libraries tend to think in terms of what will be adequate in terms of total income rather than the amount that could be raised if the maximum rate were applied. Middle joiners again reflect the trend of libraries in the lowest tax range to follow after those in the higher ranges. Non-joiners show no consistent pattern, indicating once again the inadequacy of a single variable as an accurate predictor.

Total income.--While the tax rate may be a partial indicator of the interest in providing library service, total income is the prime determiner of what service will actually be provided. Slightly over 64 percent of tax supported libraries in Illinois had annual incomes of less than $25,000. Only 16.4 percent had annual incomes over $70,000. Early joiners are more likely to be among the high to middle income libraries, while libraries which take some time before joining are more likely to be in the lower category. Non-joiners show an even distribution among the three categories.

Total income has a gamma coefficient of -.32 which, next to total expenditures, is the strongest measure of association found. While this is a score of moderate strength, it would seem to be one of the more reliable indicators. It is also of the most importance in adding some strength to the hypothesis that as libraries are better supported, they will have professionally oriented staffs which will show an increased interest in improvement in service and will be more favorably inclined to systems.

Volumes added, expenditures for materials, expenditures for salaries and total expenditures.--These are closely related to each other and to total income and are considered together here. The gamma score for these are in the moderate range and fall in a range from -.27 to -.33. Total expenditures is the strongest measure; expenditures for salaries and materials are nearly identical in strength. It could be expected that these would fall closely together since they are derived in part from total income. There is no substantial difference between expenditures for salaries and materials, indicating that libraries high in one category are likely to be high in the other also. Total expenditures is virtually the same as total income, and requires no further discussion. These items, while they may not add further insight, are consistent with the expected pattern. It would seem from this that measures of financial support are the most profitable areas for investigation of factors associated with system membership and non-membership. This is not to say that they alone explain the action of libraries with regard to systems, but that they may be associated in some systematic way with other factors which together may offer an explanation.

Summary

The variables selected for investigation in this chapter are rather crude measures and were not intended to offer any final explanation of what kinds of libraries in terms of size and support are most likely to become system members, but rather to see if any general trends could be discerned. While the tests used produced significant results for nine of the eleven items, the scores are not of sufficient strength to warrant any far reaching conclusions.

The general pattern seems to be that the larger libraries lead the way in system membership and that the smaller libraries, while eventually quite receptive to the ideas, take a longer period to become aware of systems and a longer period for evaluation and adoption. Reasons suggested for this pattern are that larger libraries are more likely to have staff members with greater professional awareness and for that reason assumed a natural leadership role. As large libraries became system members it is possible that they either actively influenced smaller libraries around them or exerted a natural kind of pull on surrounding communities. It was also suggested that the larger libraries, because of their greater resources and the per capita grants they would bring to the system, were logical choices for active recruitment. Once these larger libraries were secured as system members, system promoters then turned their attention to the smaller libraries.

The investigation of the eleven measures has not explained the action of libraries that have not joined systems. Some of them are active, well supported libraries, others quite small and poor, but on the basis of the variables used here, not clearly distinguishable from the libraries that have joined systems. On the basis of these findings it becomes obvious that other forces work to create resistance to system membership. In some cases, particularly among the middle joiners, resistance of some kind existed but was overcome; residual forms of this resistance may still exist among libraries that are system members. The basic question remaining, however, is why certain libraries resist system membership. The answer to this question may lie with the attitudes of librarians and trustees toward library service and in the way they view library systems. Resistance may be based on a fear of loss of control, fear of increased efforts and expenditures; librarians and trustees may view their library program as adequate and see little need for outside help. An additional possibility is that the system plan has specific shortcomings which would work to the disadvantage of these libraries. On one extreme there may be complete apathy toward library service.

This study proposes as its next step an in-depth study of a limited number of cases to see if specific reasons for resistance can be isolated. In order to continue the comparison of members and non-members, libraries from each of the time groups will be explored. The following chapter presents the methodology and the areas selected for investigation.

References to Chapter III

[1] William P. McLure and James E. Stone, A Study of Leadership in School District Reorganization (Urbana, Ill.: Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Illinois, 1955).

[2] Tables showing the number and percent of libraries in each size and time group and by each service and support variable are shown in Appendix A.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Since the eleven measures of population, service, and economic support selected for study in Chapter III are not sufficient to explain why some libraries join systems and others do not, it becomes necessary to look for other factors to explain resistance to library systems. This is especially true since the libraries which have not joined systems exhibit a wide range on the population, service, and support measures. This is not to say that the measures used are not important; they may be part of the answer, but alone they do not offer a very complete picture. This chapter suggests some other areas to be explored and presents the method to be used.

Because library systems are relatively new, and because little systematic research on reasons for resistance to them has been conducted, it is difficult to formulate any single explanatory hypothesis or to draw any firm conclusions about motivating and inhibiting forces. The number of variables which affect the decision is probably large and the interrelationship of these variables largely unknown. For these reasons it was decided to utilize a case study approach to allow an in-depth study of a small number of cases. This approach, it was felt, would permit a close study of several possible explanations and would provide a relatively open-ended method which would allow for the detection of unexpected variables.

Participation in library systems in Illinois is voluntary; there is no legal requirement that libraries belong to systems and no direct assignment of libraries to systems by the State Library. The decision of whether or not to join a system rests with the boards of trustees of individual libraries, and in some instances they have had an opportunity to choose between two systems. The trustees make the decision on membership; therefore, they were selected as the principal group for study. Librarians are the second group of subjects; although they do not have an official vote, they are usually in a position to affect strongly decisions concerning the library's program.

The focus of the study was narrowed somewhat further by selecting three areas for investigation which it was felt would be most likely to offer some explanations for resistance to systems. These three rather broad areas are: 1) the orientation of librarians and trustees with regard to library service, 2) the views and attitudes of librarians and trustees toward library service, and 3) their views about library systems. The following sections describe these three areas in more detail.

Local and Non-Local Orientation

The terms local and non-local orientation are used here to denote two different sets of attitudes commonly held by librarians and trustees which would have an important effect on the way in which they view library systems or other cooperative arrangements.

Local orientation is used to denote a situation in which the trustees and the librarian define their responsibility for library service strictly in terms of their own community, whether it be village, city, township or county. They see the library as an agency supported by the residents of the community for their own use; others are free to use the library on payment of a fee, but the library feels no responsibility for providing service to people outside its boundaries, either in the form of expanding the library's service area or by encouraging local efforts in areas around them.

The allegiance of the library in a strictly local orientation is to the community rather than to the profession. The definition of adequate service comes more from what the community is willing to spend for library service than from what the professional standards say is required for adequate service.

Because of its allegiance to the community the matter of local control is of prime importance in such a situation. Arrangements with other libraries or agencies which carry the possibility of removing control from the local library are vigorously opposed. Similarly, arrangements in which the library must rely on outside sources for materials or other services are viewed with caution and used reluctantly. In such a situation, self-sufficiency, real or not, is not only a goal but a necessity.

The term non-local orientation is used to describe a situation in which trustees and librarians, in addition to their responsibility for local library service, assume a much broader responsibility for the general improvement of library service. They consider it their task to look for means of improving library service, not only locally, but in areas where service is limited or lacking.

As opposed to a strictly local orientation, the allegiance in a non-local orientation is to adequate library service and to whatever efforts are required to provide this service. There is an effort to take professional standards for library service and to apply them to both the local situation and to surrounding areas.

While no library can be expected to give up local control completely, a library with a non-local orientation is willing to consider arrangements with other libraries which improve library service for both of them. There is a willingness to go beyond local resources for help when required and a willingness to give help when it is needed.

The terms local and non-local orientation represent the end points of a continuum on which libraries with varying degrees of local or non-local orientation will fall. The strength of an orientation undoubtedly varies greatly from one situation to the next. The terms local and non-local orientation have been used rather than professional and non-professional orientation, since it is possible that a library could combine a strong professional orientation with regard to standards with a very local orientation when the area to be served is considered.

The orientation of trustees and librarians is undoubtedly determined by many factors, some of them very difficult to isolate and describe. Perhaps very important is the long tradition of local support and control which characterizes library development in Illinois. Along with this is a fear of encroachment from outside agencies which pervades many communities in Illinois and involves far more than the control of libraries. For some, state control of library service implies standards of service, including the level of financial support to be provided, and qualifications and certification for library staff.

Another factor which may play an important part in the orientation of librarians and trustees is the general state of librarianship in Illinois. Most of Illinois' public libraries are small and administered by people who have little or no professional training. What they have learned about librarianship they have learned from experience, usually in the only library position they have held or are likely to hold. Such a lack of professional background does not facilitate a commitment to the profession, nor does it provide a strong link between the profession and the local situation.

A non-local orientation cannot be equated with good library service any more than a local orientation can be used as a predictor of poor library service. There may be cases where very good service is being provided by a library with a strong local orientation, and there may be cases where the reverse is true.

The orientation of a library cannot be used to predict whether or not a library will ever join a library system; too many libraries have joined to be able to assume that all joined because they have a basically non-local orientation. What is hypothesized here is that as the strength of the local orientation increases, resistance to systems will increase; resistance is defined here as a refusal to join a system or a reluctance to participate in system programs. Resistance may appear as a long delay before joining a system, or, among libraries which have joined, as a refusal to use system services. Along with the question of resistance the characteristics of libraries with local and non-local orientations are considered.

Librarians' and Trustees' Views About Library Service

This second broad area attempts to determine how librarians and trustees view their libraries and their programs of service, and whether these views are related to their reactions to membership in library systems. Some of these views may be discovered by the investigation of whether the orientation is local or non-local, but there are some other areas that deserve further exploration.

Few librarians and trustees, if asked directly, would admit that library service is relatively unimportant in their communities. However, an investigation of the level of support given to library service raises serious questions about the priority given to libraries in many Illinois communities.

Financial support alone, however, is not a complete indicator of how library service is viewed. Many municipalities may make a genuine effort to support libraries but be seriously hampered by the lack of an adequate tax base.

The main questions to be raised in this section relate to the efforts librarians and trustees make in behalf of improving library service. Do they view their programs of service as adequate for their communities, or do they see serious shortcomings? Are steps being taken to improve service, or are they content to maintain the status quo?

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The way in which librarians and trustees view their program of service may have important implications for system membership. Do libraries which are making definite and vigorous efforts to improve library service respond more favorably to library systems than libraries which are involved in minimal efforts at improving service? Is the system seen as something that will take the place of local support, or is it seen as a chance to improve service and perhaps increase local support? It is hypothesized that as local efforts to improve service increase, resistance to systems will decrease.

Views of Librarians and Trustees about Library Systems

The third area constitutes the heart of the study and seeks to discover specific reasons for resistance to library systems. Three sub areas are included in this topic: 1) the way in which librarians and trustees became aware of systems and the extent to which they were involved in the organization of the system; 2) specific advantages and disadvantages of system membership as perceived by trustees and librarians; and 3) specific factors which created delay in joining a system or which led to a refusal to join a system.

A number of questions can be raised in connection with these three sub-areas. Were libraries which were aware of systems early more likely to join than those which learned of systems much later? What is the nature of the libraries which played an active part in the organization of the systems? In the evaluation of the system plan, were there criticisms of the way the system was to be administered or of the services which the systems proposed to offer? Were there specific criticisms of the systems or was the reaction more general?

An investigation in this area may also reveal some facts about the nature of the resistance, i.e., whether it was shared by the trustees and librarians or whether it was created by particular individuals. The decision-making process should also throw some light on who plays important leadership roles in these libraries.

Selection of Cases

The three areas chosen for study were investigated in nine libraries. Three libraries from each of the categories of small, medium, and large were selected. In each of these groups one library was an early-joiner, one a middle-joiner and one a late or non-joiner. The information was gathered from interviews with librarians and trustees of each of the libraries.

Several considerations governed the selection of cases for further study. Resistance to systems existed to some degree among many trustees and librarians, including many from libraries which eventually became system members. Therefore, it was decided that the cases should represent libraries in all of the three time-of-joining groups. Such a selection permits a comparison of the three groups and makes it possible to examine the process involved in the decisions rather than simply beginning with the fact that a library has not joined a system. In the case of middle-joiners, for example, was the decision an easy one, or did it involve great controversy? If there were objections to joining a system, how were these objections overcome? By including early-joiners, it is also possible to begin an investigation of any residual resistance to systems. Are libraries that have joined satisfied with systems, and are they using system services fully? Are there dissatisfactions which are serious enough to prompt libraries to consider dropping out of the system?

Another consideration governing the selection of cases comes as a result of the findings of Chapter III. While the variables studied were not sufficient in themselves to explain resistance or acceptance, it was felt that they were too important to be ignored completely, and that by controlling these eleven variables as closely as possible the design of the study would be strengthened. Accordingly, libraries were selected from each of the size groups and matched as closely as possible on the eleven variables with emphasis on those that were considered most important. The final selection then consisted of nine libraries, three small, three medium-sized libraries, and three from the category of large libraries. In each of the size groups one of the libraries was a charter member of a system, one waited a year to 18 months before joining and one has either not joined a system or waited 34 months or more before joining.

The cases selected represent libraries which either belong to or lie within the area of eight different systems. The three libraries in the large category are within major metropolitan areas; two of them are in the same system area. The six libraries in the small and medium categories are in, or surrounded by, areas which are largely rural, and all are in different system areas.

Some consideration was given to the idea of selecting the three libraries in each size category from the same system. This would have reduced the number of systems involved to just three, but it would have provided a control over the kind of information the libraries received and the kind of interaction the system representatives had with the librarians and trustees of the local libraries. Investigation showed that the number of possible cases was not large enough to permit this for all of the size categories, and the idea was abandoned. It would also have meant that the focus would have been placed more on the system organization than on the views and feelings of those in control of the local libraries. Both approaches have something to recommend them, but because of the difficulty encountered, the latter approach was chosen.

Small libraries.--Small libraries are represented by three libraries which serve populations from a little over 4,200 to 6,559. They are closely matched on the service variables of hours open per week where the range is 36 to 40 hours per week; volumes held vary from 10,696 to 15,058; circulation figures vary more widely, from 18,897 to almost 40,000, which may or may not be an important distinction. The libraries also match closely on the measures of economic support; the level of assessed valuation shows a spread of less than four million dollars; tax rates are relatively high but have a fairly narrow range, from .095 to .117 percent of the assessed valuation. The other economic measures follow quite closely after the first two; income, amounts spent for salaries, materials and the total expenditures are quite close. This close matching is possible because of the comparatively large number of small libraries to choose from.

Medium-sized libraries.--There are far fewer libraries in the medium-sized category, and the matching becomes a good deal less precise for most of the items. The populations of the three in this group fall quite close together with a spread of less than three thousand. Hours show a surprising range from 36 to 51 hours per week, and perhaps as a reflection of this, total circulation shows a difference of over 11,000. In total income there is a spread of $20,000, but actual expenditures for salaries, materials and other operating expenditures are quite closely matched.

Large libraries.--The large libraries were even more difficult to match since their total number is quite small, but the three selected can be considered to fall in the range just below the largest libraries in the state. Populations served show a range from 40,000 to 60,000 based on 1960 census figures, but recent estimates place all three communities in the 60,000 to 70,000 range. Incomes and total expenditures are well over $100,000 in each of the cases, and the expenditures for salaries indicate fairly sizeable staffs. The tax rates for all three are high, either near or above the .12 level.

The nine cases selected do not include libraries in the extreme end of any of the categories. Very small libraries (those serving only a few hundred people), were omitted as were the largest libraries in the state. It was felt these cases would be less representative than those which fall nearer the mid-points of the categories.

In matching the libraries on these eleven items there are numerous limitations. There are conditions within the communities which cannot be controlled. The measures chosen are only partial measures of the wealth of the communities and of their willingness to support library service; they are far from a complete description of the community. Political and socio-economic features are largely unknown and may be important factors in determining the reaction of librarians and library boards to library systems.

Development of the Interview Schedule

In order to collect the information required for this study a relatively open-ended interview schedule was prepared for use with librarians and trustees. Since librarians and trustees from early-joiners, middle-joiners, and non-joiners were included in the study, several variations of the basic schedule were required.

The schedule consists of three main parts: in the first part an effort is made to determine whether the orientation of the librarians and trustees is local or non-local. Questions about professional involvement, the use of outside resources, and interest in the extension of service were used to elicit this information. The section also included questions about the relationship between the librarian and the board of trustees in order to determine who played the main leadership role.

The second part of the schedule was devoted to questions about the library's program of service and with the librarians' and trustees' satisfaction with it. Questions were also included to discover what attempts were being made to improve service and to determine how active the librarians and trustees are.

The third section deals directly with library systems. Interviewees in member libraries were asked to describe the objections encountered in the initial consideration of system membership and to describe the level of satisfaction with system services. Non-members were asked to indicate reasons for opposition to membership and to describe the extent of this opposition.

Pretesting of the interview schedule was conducted in two libraries, one a system member and one a non-member. Both the librarian and the president of the board of trustees were interviewed, and as a result of these trials some minor changes in the wording of questions were made. It was also decided at this point to change the approach to include more than one trustee whenever possible. It was felt that this would give a much more accurate picture of the feelings of the trustees. The final forms of the interview schedules are reproduced in Appendix B.

Field Work

As work on the interview schedule was being done, contact was made by phone with the librarians and the presidents of the boards of trustees of the libraries selected. The purpose of the study was explained briefly and arrangements for visits made. Visits were scheduled to permit interviews of one and a half to two hours with both the librarian and the president of the board of trustees and to permit time for informal conversations with library staff members and other trustees. The visits were made during May and June of 1969.

Analysis of the Data

Any study involving a small number of cases and asking people to express opinions faces serious limitations. In part of the interviewing librarians and trustees are asked to recall events which took place a year or two earlier; the hazards involved in this kind of recall are well known.

In asking librarians and trustees to evaluate their libraries there are usually tendencies to exaggerate the job the library is doing. With regard to system membership many reasons may be given for belonging or not belonging which bear little relationship to the actual reasons.

A final limitation of this study concerns the small number of cases and the kind of generalization this permits. The study must be considered as highly exploratory and as a prelude to a larger study involving more cases and a more tightly controlled design. The value of this study lies, hopefully, in its attempts to make a beginning in the study of factors which shape attitudes toward participation in library systems.

CHAPTER V

LOCAL AND NON-LOCAL ORIENTATION OF LIBRARIANS AND THEIR VIEWS ON LIBRARY SERVICE

In this chapter findings from interviews with librarians and trustees, plus certain background information on the libraries and their communities, are provided. Particular attention is paid to the first two areas under consideration, namely, local versus non-local orientation of librarians and trustees and the views of librarians and trustees toward library service. In the chapter that follows, more detailed attention will be paid to the views held by librarians and trustees on library systems. This discussion considers libraries in terms of size and in terms of the time taken before joining systems. An attempt will be made to point out similarities and differences among the libraries and to note any special features or circumstances which might have a bearing on how they regard membership in a library system.

In order to understand the probable impact that library systems are likely to have in Illinois, and the kind of problems likely to be encountered in their establishment and operation, it is necessary to know something about the situation into which they are projected. State law relating to libraries in Illinois is permissive; cities, towns, townships, villages, counties and special districts are permitted to establish libraries. The manner in which the various types of libraries are to be organized, the method of selection of the governing boards and the powers of these boards, including those relating to taxation, are prescribed by law. In addition, libraries which are tax-supported are required to submit an annual report to the State Librarian. Beyond these specifications libraries operate with relative freedom. There are no minimum levels of support which are required, no qualifications required of the librarians, and no minimum standards for the kind or quality of service which the libraries provide.

Under these circumstances it is not surprising that the variations in library service from one community to another are great. The quality of service depends on the ability and willingness of the community to support library service financially and on the ability and interest of librarians and trustees to implement effective programs. An interested and talented librarian, together with even one or two conscientious trustees, can make the difference between good and mediocre library service.

By law and by tradition libraries in Illinois are not accustomed to, nor have they been required to, accept control from sources outside the local community. Not only is administrative control from the state level absent, but in most cases there is little pressure from community sources with regard to library service. The library is regarded as a good thing, something every community should have, and as long as it does not place unusual financial burdens on the community, it is left largely to its own devices and to a domain which is not only local, but often quite private, within the local community. Municipal governing units and the public at large remain quite unaware of the internal operations of the library board and of many of the external ones as well.

With this general statement as background we move to a consideration of the libraries studied in each of the size categories.

Small Libraries

General description.--The small libraries (serving from 4,000 to 6,000 people) selected for study are remarkably similar in many respects and are probably typical of most small libraries in the State. The communities in which they are located are in rural areas in the north central, central, and south central areas of the state. The communities contain some light industry, but for the most part serve as shopping areas for surrounding rural areas. While not unusually distant from metropolitan areas, the communities are distinct, self-contained communities with a strong sense of local identity.

The libraries in these communities are all Carnegie buildings established early in this century, and despite some additions and remodeling, retain the distinctive Carnegie flavor.

These small libraries are headed by librarians with long residence in the community but with no training or a minimum of training in library science. In each case their library experience has been limited to that gained in their present positions. Two of the three librarians have done college work in other fields and have work experience in other areas. The length of time they have spent in their library positions is eleven years for the early joiner, one and a half years for the middle joiner, and 38 years for the late joiner. All three are middle-aged or older. In none of the cases is there any likelihood that the librarians will ever work in other libraries. The assistants to these librarians consist of part-time help, frequently local high school students.

The boards of trustees of these small libraries consist generally of school officials, teachers, businessmen, attorneys, doctors, other professional people, and the wives of people in these occupations. Most of the trustees are long-time residents of the community, many of them having grown up with the library. Their positions on the library board carry some prestige in the community and they are frequently active in civic and social affairs. There are no limits on the number of terms the board members may serve with the result that many have served long periods. Notable, but perhaps not surprising, is the fact that the boards contain very few young people.

The service programs of these libraries are remarkably similar. Since there is no large staff of librarians, what departmentalization exists is based solely on physical arrangement; a children's corner, a special location for the reference collection, some shelving for young adult materials, and open stacks for adults. Only recently have non-book materials such as records been added. Special meeting rooms exist for the use of community groups but few of the programs presented are originated or sponsored by the library.

The general atmosphere which surrounds these small libraries is one of little change. Things go on much as they have for years and the impression one gets is that little in the way of dramatic change is likely to occur in the near future.

The statistical information on which these libraries were matched is presented in Table 3.

Local versus non-local orientation.--The general outlook in the group of small libraries considered shows little variation from the early joiner to the late joiner. During the years of their existence these small libraries have maintained virtual isolation from the larger library world. Not only have they maintained an isolation from the outside library world, they have created and maintained an amazing degree of privacy within their own communities. The image of the library as something that every community should have, but as something that no one gets very excited about, has been well preserved.

The librarians have little or no professional training. The budgets are not large enough to afford professionally

TABLE 3

SELECTED STATISTICS ON SMALL LIBRARIES
BY TIME OF JOINING SYSTEMS

	Early Joiner	Middle Joiner	Late Joiner
Population	4,347	6,559	4,232
Assessed Valuation	12,671	15,448	11,519
Tax Rate	.104	.095	.117
Hours Open	36	40	36
Books	14,938	15,058	10,696
Volumes Added	610	924	754
Circulation	18,897	39,887	31,448
Income	13,628	15,207	12,032
Salaries	6,642	6,293	6,849
Materials	2,475	3,541	3,088
Total Expenditure	13,549	14,860	12,292

Source: Illinois Libraries, November 1968.

trained people, nor are the programs likely to attract such people. One gets the impression, however, that even if this were possible, the inclination of the board would still be to look for a local person, "someone who knows and understands the needs of the community." The main considerations in the selection of the librarian are availability, average to above ability and training, familiarity with the community, and a willingness to work at a salary level which would not attract a professional person.

The librarians in these libraries show no desire to move upward in the profession, and although they may officially belong to one or more professional associations, they show little interest in them and take no active part in professional activities at either the state or national level. They feel that experience in the job together with an occasional in-service training program is sufficient background for the work they do. Within the limits of the resources of the library, their personal training, and the expectations of the board and the community, they must be considered both conscientious and hard working. Beyond this there is little commitment to librarianship as a profession and limited attention to staying informed on library problems either through the professional literature or through participation in library workshops.

What applies to the librarians with regard to professional orientation or non-local orientation is doubly true for the trustees. Although some or all members of the board may hold membership in professional associations, there is little indication of active interest or participation in professional activities.

The contact which these small libraries have had with other libraries has been quite limited. The consultant service which has been available from the State Library has been used sparingly. Most of the librarians and trustees feel competent to work out their own solutions to problems. The main contact with outside sources has been with the State Library for interlibrary loan requests and supplementary collections. This has been an important service and any curtailment of it would impose severe hardships on these small libraries. The extent to which they look to other libraries, academic or public, is very small. It should be added that reliance on the State Library incurs no obligation on the part of these libraries, which is a very important consideration.

Prior to system development and membership, none of these three small libraries had any cooperative arrangements with other libraries. There were no cooperative buying or processing arrangements, no provisions for reciprocal borrowing, and little coordination with even the school libraries in the communities. They operated as completely separate and independent units.

Related to the lack of cooperative arrangements is the policy on extension of service to people outside the community. None of these libraries is large enough to provide service to outlying areas on a fee or contract basis, and therefore the only provision is the non-resident fee. In all of the cases the fee is low; the librarian is given freedom in determining ability to pay where this might be a problem, and exceptions for school children are frequently made. In each case, however, it is clearly a matter of policy that those outside the city limits must pay for service, and the impression is that any sudden influx which might detract from service to residents would be dealt with very quickly.

Without a doubt the orientation of the librarians and trustees in these small libraries is strictly local which is not necessarily bad or unusual. The following section ties this orientation to the views the librarians and trustees have toward library service.

Views of library service.--Since the orientation of the librarians and trustees in the small libraries investigated here is highly local, it follows that the way in which they operate their libraries and view library service is determined more by local considerations than by professional standards or recommendations from sources outside the community.

This is seen quite clearly in the relationship which the library has established with the city council. Librarians and trustees tend to see the needs of the library in relation to other financial needs of the community, ranging from expenditures for schools to streets. The final power for determining the appropriations for library purposes is delegated to the city council, and most feel that this is where the responsibility should lie. By maintaining amicable relations with the council and by making only modest increases in the library budget each year these libraries usually manage to get what they ask for. While this procedure may insure friendly relations with the city council it promises little for improving the position of the library in the hierarchy of community services. Perhaps an added advantage to the library in pursuing this policy of minimal demand on the city council and the community is the assurance of low visibility for the library and immunity from criticism for extravagance and wasteful spending. It helps to insure the privacy which was discussed above.

The decision making process of the library boards and the relationship between the librarians and the trustees present some interesting insights into their views on their roles and responsibilities for providing library service for the community. In most of the dealings between the board members and the librarian there seems to be a great deal of emphasis on establishing consensus before any action is taken. This method of operation frequently makes it possible for a minority of the board, in some cases a single member, to block action. Neither is it likely in this kind of situation that the board will take any action which is strongly opposed by the librarian. While this approach to running the library may minimize conflicts and preserve surface harmony, it raises serious problems for the introduction of new ideas and policies. The librarian may never propose policies which he feels even one or two of the board members may oppose, and the board may hesitate to act until all of the members are convinced of the advisability of the action. Since contact with the larger library world is limited, this imposes a further limitation on the introduction of change in library service in these small communities. In any case, regardless of the source of a proposal, the mechanism of the decision making process makes the process of change a very gradual one.

The relationship between the librarians and the boards of trustees in these small libraries involves a clear understanding about basic library policies and operations, similar to the understanding that exists between the library board and the city council. The librarian, while given freedom to operate the library on a daily basis with virtually no interference from the board, works within a closely prescribed framework dictated by a limited budget, a clear awareness of the wishes of the board, and a tradition of local library service which is common to them both. The main wish of the two is not so much one of working together or of one establishing control over the other as it is the careful preservation of separate areas of control. For the librarian it is freedom from daily interference, for the board it is the feeling of controlling the financial aspects of the library's operation and the maintenance of the library's identity within the community.

The various arrangements worked out within this general framework present some rather curious results. In one of the libraries the librarian rarely attended board meetings because they were held at a time when she was needed to staff the library. In the others there are conflicting reports as to who provides the suggestions or leadership for library policy. One example of this occurs in the area of book selection. In one of the libraries the librarian takes little interest in book selection, leaving it to a committee of the board which in this case does an adequate job in selected areas. In a second library both the librarian and the board claim the major responsibility for book selection. In a third, the librarian selects the books but submits the list to the board before purchasing.

This type of mutual accommodation on the part of the board and the librarian may represent simply a sharing of a very limited pool of responsibility or power, but it also tends to diffuse the responsibility when it comes to leadership, particularly in the area of change and improvement of library service.

It becomes apparent from what has been said thus far that planning for future library service is not a major activity of librarians and trustees in these small libraries. This is true for several reasons. The librarians and trustees in these small libraries see the library service they give as being adequate to the needs of their communities. There are three main groups to whom the service is geared--children, students, and a general adult reading public; in all cases they are satisfied that they are doing an adequate job. Funds are adequate to buy the books they want and as long as professional help is not required, the salaries are sufficient to keep the libraries staffed.

Most of the improvements which are cited as having been made in these libraries in recent years have to do with physical improvements in the buildings or the addition of equipment rather than in service programs. Some, however, did cite the addition of records and non-book materials as important improvements.

When asked to cite problems they face in the near future, the main concerns again were with the building, occasionally with space, but primarily with maintenance. Financial support is not seen as a serious problem. Most felt that funds would continue to be adequate for some time. Despite the fact that two of the libraries are nearing the maximum levy permitted, no thought has been given to a referendum to raise it. In the event that the maximum is reached they "would simply have to live within their budgets." The third library is permitted to tax at a maximum level of .20 percent of the assessed valuation, but makes every attempt to stay within the .12 percent level. Although these communities are not likely to experience great increases in the assessed valuation available for tax purposes, the librarians and trustees see few financial problems in the immediate future. This may be another expression of the tendency to think in terms of what is available rather than in terms of what might be desirable for library purposes.

If these libraries have given little attention to planning for future library needs within their own communities, the attention given to consideration of the extension of service to the unserved must be considered non-existent. The policy of service to non-residents on payment of a fee prevails and is likely to continue.

These small libraries must be characterized as relatively unchanging and quite satisfied with present service, most commonly expressed as "pride and pleasure in the friendly atmosphere of their library."

Decision on system membership.--Since the three small libraries are similar in so many respects, the question of why one joined a system immediately, why one waited for approximately a year, and why one waited for almost three years raises some interesting questions as to what elements made the difference. In the case of the early joiner three elements worked together to make the decision relatively easy. The librarian, a retired school teacher, is very interested in being able to provide materials for students of high school age and additional materials for very young readers. She was convinced the system would be able to do this. A second important element is that the library is close to the system headquarters and associations with the system director were quite close and frequent. The board of trustees, in the face of a librarian who was convinced that it would be of benefit and a system director who was close at hand to explain the operations of the system, was relatively easy to convince.

In the case of the middle joiner the librarian prior to the time of joining the system had been an ex-teacher who was opposed to the system and who combined with a member of the board of trustees to block participation. Her arguments against system membership were that the library was adequate as it was and that whatever extra materials were needed were available from the State Library. She objected in general to the "over-systematization" of living and argued that involvement with the system was just one more step in this direction. Several board members were only lukewarm to the idea and felt that it was a very complicated arrangement as it had been explained to them. Upon the retirement of the librarian to only part-time work in the library, the hiring of a younger librarian, and visits by the system director who explained the system operation in more detail, the board agreed to become a member of the system.

The third small library which became a system member after approximately three years of waiting demonstrates the importance one trustee can have in the decision-making process. The librarian was unconvinced of the importance of belonging to a system as long as the resources of the State Library were available upon request. He was, therefore, unwilling to push the idea of system membership with his board, and was faced with a board which was largely unaware of what the system was, and one board member with experience in state government who was vehemently opposed to the idea. His opposition, in the absence of any vigorous push from the librarian or from any of the other trustees, was successful in keeping the library out of a system. Upon his death several board members visited the headquarters of the system and came away with the feeling that the library could benefit from system membership, and the library joined shortly thereafter.

One very important consideration that operated in all of these small libraries was a very real fear that the State Library was going to cease its policy of lending materials directly to public libraries. This forced these small libraries to look for alternatives to the State Library as a source of supplementary materials. Since systems were being organized, they seemed the logical place to go, but it was not until they were assured by the system that there would be no interference in local operations that the decision to join was made.

Medium-Sized Libraries

General description.--The libraries in this group serve populations ranging from about 14,000 to 16,000 people but are experiencing population increases far above those of the small communities considered above. This growth is due in part to the fact that all three communities contain academic institutions whose staff and student populations are increasing. The three communities are located in west central, east central, and south central Illinois and are surrounded by largely rural areas.

The libraries in this group are in the middle in a very real sense. All began with Carnegie buildings which have become seriously inadequate for housing the staff and materials needed to serve their communities. One library has expanded its building by the addition of wings, a second is in the process of planning for expansion or for a new building, and the third is beginning to give consideration to the need for new or expanded quarters.

In these libraries we begin to see departmentalization and specialization of both materials and staff. The most common first step is the provision of a separate department for children and young adults with staff to select materials and arrange programs for these groups. The forms of materials for both the younger and the adult groups become broader and usually include records, art prints, and more specialized reference collections.

The librarians in this medium-sized group of libraries represent some distinct contrasts to those in the small libraries. Two of the three have professional training, and the third has made library work her career for a number of years. Their tenure in their present positions ranges from a few months to twelve years.

As in the small libraries, the boards of trustees are composed largely of professional and business people, and the wives of men associated with local businesses or professional occupations. Although there is no limit on the number of terms members may serve, the boards of these libraries exhibited a somewhat greater degree of turnover than the small library boards and a somewhat more active participation in professional activities.

The libraries in this medium-sized category might be described as being in a transitional stage. They are no longer small libraries; their communities are increasing in size and there are demands on the library to increase both facilities and services. The libraries in this group face the problems attendant on these increasing demands, but at the same time retain many of the attitudes which were discovered in the small libraries studied.

Selected statistical information on these libraries is given in Table 4.

TABLE 4

SELECTED STATISTICS ON MEDIUM-SIZED LIBRARIES BY TIME OF JOINING SYSTEMS

	Early Joiner	Middle Joiner	Non-Joiner
Population	15,151	16,094	13,611
Assessed Valuation	40,570	35,859	29,483
Tax Rate	.12	.079	.12
Hours Open	45	36	51
Books	19,914	31,268	24,826
Volumes Added	1,237	1,512	1,373
Circulation	64,744	59,153	70,719
Income	48,457	28,036	35,701
Salaries	19,146	14,275	15,178
Materials	6,126	6,706	4,967
Total Expenditure	33,489	39,166	33,256

Source: Illinois Libraries, November 1968.

Local versus non-local orientation.--In contrast to the small libraries, which show a remarkable similarity in orientation and outlook, the three libraries in the medium-sized category show great variation from early joiner to non-joiner and, as a group, some distinct changes from the attitudes expressed by the small libraries. Primarily because the communities are no longer small, and because the demands on the library have increased, these libraries have lost some of the privacy which the small libraries enjoy and have become considerably more visible in their communities.

In two of the medium-sized communities this visibility is due in part to building programs, one completed and one still in the planning stages. This has focused more attention on the library. In the third community, where a new or expanded building must be considered very soon, a similar effect might be anticipated. In addition, all three of these communities contain academic institutions which add a new dimension to the demands placed on the public library.

Two of the three libraries are headed by professional librarians who are assisted by sub-professional and part-time help. In these two libraries, both of which are system members, it is a policy of the board to seek librarians with professional training for the head position. The non-member library is headed by a person with long experience in two different libraries, and the question of professional training seems to take second place to experience. It should be added, however, that all three of the libraries either have experienced or are likely to experience difficulty in replacing their head librarians with professionally trained people because of the comparatively low level of the salaries offered.

The librarians in these three libraries either have been or are potentially more mobile than those of the small libraries. Two have come to their present positions from other library jobs, and the third is accepting his first professional position.

The level of professional involvement on the part of both librarians and trustees is much greater than in the small libraries. Membership in the Illinois Library Association is paid for by the board for both the librarian and trustees in the two member libraries and for the librarian alone in the case of the non-member. Membership in the American Library Association is usually paid for the librarian alone. Attendance at workshops and conferences is much more common for both trustees and various members of the library staff and is encouraged partly by the boards' willingness to pay for the expenses of such trips.

As suggested above, we see in these libraries a much more active role played by the trustees in professional activities. In the case of both of the member libraries there is at least one trustee who works actively at becoming aware of professional activities and developments. This is somewhat less true for the non-member library, but it is still above the level of the small library trustees.

Reliance on outside sources for help in supplying needed materials and advice, while it may not approach the volume of interlibrary loan requests from the small libraries, takes a different form. The State Library is still the first place they turn for materials they do not have, but they are also likely to use other sources. Except for the early joiner, the same reluctance to use consultant services from the outside appears to the same degree as it did in the small libraries.

Prior to system membership none of the libraries had any cooperative arrangements with other libraries. In this respect they are little different from the small libraries; this is surprising, however, since the middle joiner was within the area of an operating film cooperative.

Service to people outside the communities is based on the payment of a non-resident fee. Resident college students may use the libraries either free of charge or at a minimal cost. Except in the case of the early joiner there is little evidence of consideration being given to extension of service outside the community in anything but its present form. The early joiner has suggested to nearby small communities the possibility of contracting for library service.

While the orientation of these medium-sized libraries begins to show a swing away from the very local orientation of the small libraries, there are still strong elements of local control and efforts to maintain the library as a distinctly community oriented agency. The middle joiner and the non-joiner are still locally oriented and show a surprising lack of knowledge of or enthusiasm for cooperative arrangements with other libraries. System membership has been approached with a good deal of caution by the middle joiner and is still not acceptable to the non-member.

Views on library service.--The somewhat less local orientation of these medium-sized libraries means that they are more ambitious for the library and must face the problem of acquiring funds for the programs they wish to institute. The non-member and the middle joiner still defer to the city council for final determination of the amount of money to be appropriated for library service. The approach in financial matters is conservative or perhaps passive. An illustration of this is the non-member's use of accumulated operating funds for the construction of two wings to the library. Still, both insist that the city council grants their requests and that funds are adequate.

In the case of the middle joiner the need for expanded quarters or a new building is generally recognized, but efforts at making plans are delayed by a fear of community reaction to increased expenditures and rising taxes. The early joiner has a more aggressive attitude toward the acquisition of funds and insists more on the right of the library board to determine its financial requirements. Whether the ultimate results of these two approaches have been substantially different over the years is difficult to ascertain. It is apparent, however, that the financial requirements of these libraries are increasing rather rapidly, and that if they are to keep pace with increasing needs aggressive leadership is required.

The decision-making process of these medium-sized libraries reflects the general position in which they find themselves. They retain many of the conservative attitudes of the small libraries, and the librarians are largely passive in relation to the boards. At the same time the librarians are better informed about new developments, and at least one or two trustees share an awareness of current developments. The combination of a suggestion from the librarian with support from one or two trustees greatly improves the possibility of decisive action being taken. There is less waiting around for all to agree and more likelihood of an early decision. This combination can also work to defeat proposals from other members of the board or prevent certain questions from being raised. When the librarian and a "leader" trustee are in agreement, action is fairly certain; when they are in opposition on a point, it is likely that no decision will be made or that action will be postponed. This situation is much more conducive to the successful introduction of new ideas and change assuming that those in leadership positions are in sympathy with programs for change.

The relationship between the librarian and the trustees in this group of libraries is much more clearly defined than in the small libraries. The librarian operates quite freely in administrative areas, and the board restricts itself much more to policies and the determination of general programs. Written policy statements are more common, and, to use the same example as for small libraries, book selection is left to the librarian and his staff. Only in the case of the non-member are there sporadic attempts to revive a book selection committee of the board. The main concerns of the trustees lie with policy making with usual predominant attention to finances and the library building.

Because of the situation in which these libraries find themselves, i.e., one of having to keep up with increasing demands for service, there is considerably more attention paid to future planning. Notable too, is the fact that there is much more attention paid to service improvement than in the small libraries. Longer hours, separately staffed departments for children, art prints, records, films, and library sponsored discussion groups are all services that were mentioned as having recently received attention or as requiring attention in the future. There is much less of a tendency to express satisfaction with the level of service in these medium sized libraries, although all have services and features of which they are justly proud.

Decision on system membership.--Since the orientation of these medium-sized libraries is somewhat less local and the leadership more professionally oriented, the main considerations and the process of making the decision regarding system membership are of great interest.

The library which was the early joiner had a professionally trained librarian and an active trustee who was aware of system development long before the features of the plan had been written into law. His knowledge of the developments which were to come, including again the possibility of the State Library's withdrawal from direct service to libraries, were instrumental in placing this library among the early joiners.

For the middle library in this group the decision was not nearly as easy and the process which led to the decision to join is quite similar to the one for the middle joiner among the small libraries. The librarian, at first wary of the idea, said she would go along with the idea if it was the desire of the board. Her reservations were based on a fear of restrictions and controls which might result from membership and the extra work involved in converting charging systems and other operating procedures. Two trustees strongly opposed the idea and the others were uncertain enough to postpone their decision. One of the trustees was actively interested and made an effort to learn about the system. Her efforts, combined with information from the system director, helped to clear away some of the misconceptions which had arisen. In the final analysis, however, it was the promise of a direct cash grant from the system to the library which convinced the librarian and board to join the system. Such grants are no longer permitted under a subsequent interpretation of the law. Another trustee expressed the opinion that there really was no other choice since the State Library was going to withdraw its direct services to public libraries.

The third library in this group still is not a system member and at present shows no inclination to become one. The librarian and at least one trustee are well aware of the system's existence since they attended early organizational meetings of the system and have since been contacted by the system director. The early organizational meetings were attended and the matter of membership was discussed by the board. The idea was rejected and has not been discussed since. The librarian would be willing to go along with the board if it decided to join a system but expressed no desire to bring the matter before the board again. Three of the oldest members of the board voiced strong opposition and no one on the board has shown any interest in urging reconsideration of the idea. Recent appointees to the board seem to be largely unaware of the system and the services it offers.

Large Libraries

General description.--The three large libraries represent some distinct changes from those considered in the small and medium sized groups. While they cannot be considered major libraries in national terms, on the state level they are equal to or superior to all but a few public libraries in the state in financial and bibliographic resources and professional staff.

All three of the communities fall within the Chicago metropolitan area, although two of the three are far enough away and possess enough of an industrial base to remain independent of Chicago for employment for over 40 percent of the work force. Present estimates place all of the three communities in the 60,000 to 70,000 population range.

The libraries in these communities have been subjected to rapidly increasing demands for library services. All three have responded with building programs which have resulted in the replacement of seriously inadequate physical plants. In one of the three the successful building referendum was followed by successful referenda which substantially improved the funding available for library purposes. The libraries in this category are headed by professionally trained and experienced librarians who direct staffs containing from four to six additional professionally trained librarians.

All of the libraries have special departments for children, young adult, and adult services. In addition, reference collections are much more highly developed, especially in the area of business services, and there is a much wider selection of non-book materials. Two of the three libraries operate bookmobile service.

As in most of the libraries considered the trustees are mainly business and professional people, with those from business being somewhat more prominent in these larger libraries. Some of the trustees are retired and are in a position to devote considerable time to their library interests if they so choose. Men seem somewhat more prominent in leadership roles; this may be due in part to the greater attention which must be paid to financial matters particularly those involved with construction. The tenure on these boards ranges widely. In one case the trustees are elected and most are in the middle of a second six-year term. In a second case the majority of the trustees have served for about eleven years and in the third the trustees have much longer tenure, some of them as long as 30 years.

The general tenor of the programs of these large libraries is one of working continuously to meet rapidly increasing demands from the users. Increasing pressures come from both students and the general adult public. Statistics for these libraries are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5

SELECTED STATISTICS ON LARGE LIBRARIES
BY TIME OF JOINING SYSTEMS

	Early Joiner	Middle Joiner	Non-Joiner
Population	40,622	65,472	66,253
Assessed Valuation	152,530	270,083	256,544
Tax Rate	.114	.12	.139
Hours Open	62	68	69
Books	58,357	124,981	141,431
Volumes Added	8,792	10,835	9,938
Circulation	303,043	418,086	556,085
Income	172,068	388,699	350,659
Salaries	84,048	199,057	121,473
Materials	60,909	57,939	44,623
Total Expenditures	172,592	388,223	216,774

Source: *Illinois Libraries*, November 1968.

Local versus non-local orientation.--The large libraries selected for study have many characteristics in common, but they also present some interesting contrasts in terms of orientation. These are all high quality libraries with active, well-rounded programs and well-qualified personnel. All three have recently completed new buildings, and all operate with budgets well above the average for public libraries in Illinois. The librarians are professionally trained and well qualified by experience. They are aware of current developments in librarianship and are actively involved in state and national library associations. The tenure of these librarians ranges from a matter of months in the case of the early joiner to 30 years in the other two cases. Not only are these head librarians professionally trained, but they direct staffs which contain from four to six additional professionals who head various public service and technical departments. All of the libraries have programs which encourage the participation of staff members in professional workshops and conferences. The library board supports this program by paying for association membership for the head librarian and by paying expenses for staff members who attend professional meetings.

The trustees are remarkable in the amount of expertise they bring to their boards, particularly in the area of finance and business management. The trustees hold memberships in the Illinois Library Association and the American Library Association, but the extent to which they are actively involved varies greatly among the three libraries. In the non-member there is little indication of non-local professional involvement or activity; the same is true for the early joiner. In the middle joiner the trustees have been very active in state and national library programs to the extent that two have been cited for their activities.

In considering the small and medium-sized libraries it was possible to measure their local orientation or non-local orientation in part by the extent to which they relied on outside sources for help in the form of both materials and advice. With the large libraries this is more difficult to do. These large libraries have professionally trained staff, and, except in such technical areas as building construction, they feel as competent as most consultants that might be called in. In fact it is these librarians who are frequently called upon to advise other librarians or to serve in teaching capacities.

Dependence on outside sources for materials not available at the local level reveals a similar pattern. It is these libraries that are more likely to be called on for help. However, despite their larger collections, they do call on other sources for materials. The State Library is still a common source of supply for these libraries, but there is more reliance on the Chicago Public Library and academic institutions than is seen in the small and medium libraries. Part of this is due, no doubt, to the fact that the librarians are more aware of the potential sources of supply and are less hesitant to call on them. In the case of the non-member library there is surprisingly little reliance on outside sources for materials.

In the area of cooperative arrangements the larger libraries are usually expected to take the lead because of their professionally trained staffs and the greater resources at their command. In the three libraries studied here there has certainly been more thought and discussion devoted to cooperative programs, but the realization of concrete programs has been slight. There has been talk about giving service to nearby communities on a contract basis, about cooperation between school and public libraries, and even about the establishment of a district library, but very little has been accomplished. The most specific achievement, outside of what the systems have offered, has been in the area of interlibrary loans where libraries have established rather informal arrangements in which they depend on each other for certain types of materials. Another example is the establishment of a centralized processing center for surrounding libraries. Beyond these examples there have been few instances of cooperative arrangements either among the larger libraries or between the larger libraries and the smaller libraries around them.

In the area of service to non-residents the same policy as was found in the small and medium libraries applies here. A non-resident fee, considerably higher than in the small and medium libraries, entitles a person or a family to full use of the library.

As stated at the beginning of this section, the larger libraries present an interesting paradox in terms of the local versus non-local orientation. In terms of professional orientation they far excel the small and medium libraries. They are more conversant with the goals and aims of the profession, have far more non-local contacts, and are much more aware of the problems to be solved. In this sense they show an orientation which is quite non-local. In practical terms or in terms of their service orientation the picture is quite different. The early joiner is highly local in its orientation primarily because it faces very serious problems in being able to meet the needs of its own community and is surrounded by communities with far less adequate library facilities. Its primary aim is to develop the library's resources and to prevent their depletion by users from surrounding areas. In the case of the non-member the orientation again is very local in service terms. They are willing to consider service on a contract basis if asked but make very little effort to take the lead in this direction. Only in the case of the middle joiner is the service orientation less local; serious attention is paid to the problem of extending service to outlying areas.

Views on library service.--The fact that the larger libraries are more aware of the aims of the profession and rely less on the local community to determine the nature of the library program is reflected in the library's general position in the community and its relationship with the governing bodies in each of the communities. The first notable difference is that the librarians and the trustees are much more aggressive in the programs they project and in their attempts to insure adequate funding for the library. While all of the boards still officially defer to the municipal governing units for approval of library appropriations, there is a much better understanding of the political machinery involved and of what is required to guarantee adequate funding for the library. Both librarians and trustees work harder at maintaining contact with city officials and on each of the boards there are trustees who have important contacts with members of the municipal government.

All of the libraries report considerable success in obtaining the funds they request, and feel that they have good working relationships with the municipal officials. Among these libraries there is a much stronger feeling that the library board is in the best position to judge the needs of the library and that the role of the municipal governing body should be limited to giving official approval to the library's requests. Since no difficulty has been experienced by these libraries in obtaining funds thus far, there has been little attention given to investing the library with the exclusive and final power to determine appropriations for library purposes. In the event that requested funds were not granted, however, one gets the impression that these library boards are prepared to take direct steps to insure sufficient funding for the library.

In the area of decision-making the most noticeable change in the larger libraries is the increase in the number of decisions which must be made. Some small and medium libraries may go for long periods without making any decisions which substantially affect the operation of the library. In the larger libraries the operations are much more complex; the staffs are larger, demands from the community are greater and the management of substantial budgets is involved. All of these areas require continuous planning on the part of both the librarian and the board if the library is to keep pace with the needs of its clientele.

In the decision-making process itself several differences may be noted. The first is the role which the librarian plays; he is professionally trained and the board expects him to take the lead in the presentation of proposals and in providing the background information required for making a decision. A second important difference is in the trustees themselves; they are more involved in trustee activities beyond their own communities and in general are well informed on library matters. They are prepared to look at proposals in detail and with a rather close view to the effect they might have on the operation of their libraries. There is a freer exchange of information and opinion and while discussion on some issues may be prolonged, the possibility of action is greatly increased.

Among the three libraries considered there are some differences which should be noted, primarily in the relationship between the librarians and the trustees. In the early joiner the librarian is new and very active and works with a board which is also very active. The result is a very lively exchange of ideas and opinions and a number of very bold and imaginative programs. In the case of the middle joiner the librarian has worked with virtually the same board for 30 years; while the trustees are interested and informed, much of the decision-making is done by the librarian who receives little more than official approval from the board. As long as the librarian is interested and active in proposing new programs, the library will remain alive, but it appears that the board has surrendered much of the decision-making to the librarian. In the non-member there is a situation which is more like that found in the smaller libraries. In this case the librarian and the board have also worked together for some time but they seem to share a common view of library service, one which is quite local. The result is that consensus is more important in this library and programs which might arouse conflict are not proposed.

The relationship between the boards and librarians in these libraries is fairly well presented in the discussion of the decision-making process, but a couple of points deserve amplification. The boards officially, and for the most part in practice, restrict themselves to the formulation of official library policy and refrain from interference in the administration of the library. Nonetheless, there is a difference among the libraries in this respect. There is a certain kind of watchfulness which exists in the case of the early joiner and the non-member which is not present in the case of the middle joiner. In these two cases the trustees seem to be more willing to exercise their prerogatives of deciding library policy and in general keep a closer watch on the activities of the library.

In the small and medium libraries, with one exception, there was a noticeable lack of planning for future development.

As evidenced by the activity of the larger libraries in constructing and remodeling buildings, they have been very active in planning for this phase of the library program. In two of the libraries, the early and middle joiners, planning for future development is built into the structure of their operations. Both the librarians and the trustees are concerned with looking ahead to problems which they face in the near future. In the non-member this feature is less prominent and the attitude is more one of solving problems as they arise.

The libraries in this category are also more aware of the problems they face in the future. For the early joiner the problems are immediate and will continue to be so for some time. For the most part these are problems dealing with the provision of enough materials for the library's borrowers and the addition of special types of materials such as films and microfilm. The middle joiner operates in much more stable and well established situations and cites the extension of service as the major goal for the future. The community is surrounded by an area which is not well served; one of the possible solutions to this problem is the establishment of demonstration projects which hopefully will lead some day to the establishment of a district library. In the non-member there is concern about the establishment of special services to shut-ins and the creation of discussion groups or forums sponsored by the library. These needs seem to be much less pressing and the planning for these programs does not have the urgency of those of the middle joiner.

Decision on system membership.--The previous discussion of the orientation of the trustees and librarians in the category of large libraries has revealed some of the views and orientations which were brought to bear on the decision regarding membership in a library system. With regard to the decision, the position of the large libraries was somewhat different. The librarians and consequently the trustees of these libraries were much more aware of the plan for systems development at an earlier time than most of the librarians and trustees in the other two categories of libraries. In fact, some of the librarians and trustees were involved in the formulation of the plan itself. In effect then they had a longer period in which to evaluate the plan before a decision on membership was required. Nonetheless, the decision was not necessarily an easy one.

The early joiner in this group, rather ironically, expressed, and still does express, serious reservations about the value of system membership. The decision was very difficult and was made by a one vote margin in the absence of one of the board members. The decision came only after the assurance that easy withdrawal from the system was possible and that there would be no interference from the system in the internal operations of the library. The decision to join was tentative, and it is obvious that the evaluation of the benefits of system membership is continuing.

The middle joiner in this group is a middle joiner by virtue of a set of circumstances which do not reflect the true feelings of the librarian and board about systems. Consideration was given to the possibility of forming a system with this library serving as the headquarters library. When this idea was discarded, the library immediately joined one of the existing systems.

The non-member library sent its librarian and a trustee to two meetings at which the formation of a system in the area was discussed. They attended these meetings with considerable bias against joining the system, and the meetings did little more than solidify these feelings. The library prefers to operate independently and shows little inclination to joining a system at any time in the near future. This feeling is shared by the trustees in general and the librarian sees no reason to push the issue with the board.

Summary

This chapter has attempted to give a general characterization of three libraries in the small, medium and large categories in order to show something of their orientation to library service in terms of both the profession and their communities.

In the small libraries the orientation was found to be highly local in terms of standards for the library and the library's service orientation. The libraries are almost completely unchanging and their decisions on system membership were largely influenced by contact with the system director and the fear of the loss of State Library back-up service.

The medium-sized libraries showed a much less consistent picture than the small libraries. They tend to take more of their standards of service from the profession while maintaining a conservative approach in their dealings with their communities and their city governments. There are the beginnings of professional involvement and where this has been fairly strong it has been an influential factor in the decision to join or not to join systems.

Among the large libraries considered the picture is even more diverse. The relatively self-sufficient libraries reveal a wide range of attitudes about library service. In professional orientation they are the strongest of the three groups and this is reflected in the efforts they make for library service and in the nature of the programs they offer. In service orientation they have widely divergent views, ranging from the extension of service orientation of the middle joiner, to the somewhat uncertain position of the early joiner and the strictly local service orientation of the non-member.

When the nine libraries studied are considered in terms of the time they took before joining a library system, no consistent pattern emerges for all of the time-of-joining groups. The late joiners and non-members show the most consistent pattern; regardless of the level of library service and the reliance on professional standards, the orientation of the librarian and the trustees in terms of service was the same. There is little interest in involvement with other libraries and complete satisfaction with the service now being given.

The middle joiners do not show as consistent a pattern mainly because the middle joiner in the large group fell into this category by chance. The other two are similar in that considerable resistance existed and was overcome but in very different ways. In one case it was a matter of change of personnel and in the other it was the offer of tangible benefits from the system. In both instances, however, there were repeated efforts on behalf of the system directors to convince the libraries of the benefits of system membership.

In the case of the early joiners little resistance was encountered in two of the cases. This was due to familiarity of either one trustee or the librarian with the system and what it could do for their libraries. In the third case the decision was made with great reservations which still remain.

In this chapter little has been said about systems specifically and the way in which libraries have reacted to system membership. The following chapter considers specific features of the system plan in an attempt to determine which system services are seen as most beneficial and which services or programs are most likely to engender resistance to either membership or full utilization of system services.

CHAPTER VI

LIBRARIANS AND TRUSTEES: THEIR VIEWS ON LIBRARY SYSTEMS

The previous chapter described the nine libraries studied in terms of their local or non-local orientation to library service, and in terms of the importance they attached to library service as measured by the efforts they were making to improve it.

This chapter deals with the librarians' and trustees' views on library systems and attempts to trace the action the libraries took from the time they first heard about library systems through the time when they made a decision on whether or not to join a system. Three specific areas are included: 1) awareness of and involvement in system organization; 2) the evaluation of library systems--the advantages and disadvantages of system membership as perceived by trustees and librarians; 3) initial and residual resistance to library systems.

Awareness of and Involvement in System Organization

Before libraries could consider membership in library systems they had to learn about the development of systems and about the kinds of services that the systems proposed to offer. Systems varied in different parts of the state, in the nature of the problems they faced, in the kinds of libraries that needed to be served, and as a result, in the types of programs that were developed. Libraries were faced with learning about quite different kinds of systems, and they were dealing with different people in each instance.

Work on the plan for public library development was begun in 1962, and the first systems were given official approval in early 1966. During this period there were a number of ways in which librarians and trustees might have become aware of the proposal to develop a number of library systems in the state. Some trustees and librarians were involved in work on the plan from the very beginning or were active enough in professional organizations to have learned about it when it was still in the early stages of consideration. Reports of the Library Development Committee were published in Illinois Libraries from time to time which indicated that progress was being made on the plan for public library development. In 1963 the Rohlf report, which laid the basis for the legislation making system organization possible, was published and widely distributed both through Illinois Libraries and as a separately printed study. Following the issuance of the Rohlf report a number of area meetings were held in different parts of the state to publicize the features of the plan and to build support for it among librarians and trustees. Following these area meetings trustees and librarians made direct contact with librarians and library boards to inform them of the new proposal.

By the time the area meetings had been held and the actual work on the organization of the systems begun, there were very few libraries in the state which were not aware of system development at least in a general sense. Many details remained to be worked out and many items in the plans of service were still vague, but the idea had received statewide coverage.

Of the nine libraries studied here, four had learned about systems while they were still in the early planning stages. These were the large libraries with librarians and trustees who had a much wider range of professional contacts, and one of the medium-sized libraries which had a trustee who was active in library affairs at the state level. The other libraries in this group depended more on the printed report and direct contact with librarians and trustees in their own areas for their initial information about systems. The time at which libraries became aware of systems or the way in which they became aware of systems has little relationship to the decision they finally made on system membership. In two of the nine cases it did have an effect on the part the libraries played in system organization in their areas. The early joiner in the medium-sized group learned of systems quite early, and the board gave a favorable response very early. This put the library in a natural leadership position in its area. The same is true of the large library in the middle-joiners even though its initial efforts were toward a separate system of which it would have been the center.

More important and revealing than the time or manner in which libraries became aware of library systems is their first response and their subsequent efforts at learning more about systems and the extent to which they were involved in system organization in their areas.

The three libraries in the category of late and non-joiners made very limited efforts to learn about systems or to become involved in working for their establishment. The large library was aware of systems quite early but made no effort beyond attendance at one or two area informational meetings. The medium-sized library also attended one or two area meetings and then lost interest. The small library was not involved in the organization of the system and made even more limited efforts to attend area meetings for informational purposes. It was not until two years after the organization of the system that it really made any effort to find out about the workings of the system. This was due, finally, in part to a visit from the system director which prompted some of the trustees to make a visit to the system headquarters. In each of these three cases a decision was made quite early that the library was not interested, or that it would wait until some later date to take up the question of system membership. To date these non-joiners have made no additional efforts to learn about system services, nor have they discussed the matter at any board meetings with a view to joining a system at some time in the future. It seems likely that any move in this direction will have to be prompted by some action on the part of the systems or by changes in the composition of the boards of trustees.

Among the middle-joiners the large library was aware of systems very early and was actively engaged in promoting a system in its surrounding area. It remains active in planning the services in the system it subsequently joined. The medium and small libraries exhibit the same cautious approach evident in most of their dealings. They attended meetings somewhat sporadically, and while they were fairly well informed about systems, they took no active part in their organization. The systems were well established and directors appointed before they were convinced of the advantages of becoming system members.

The early-joiners show an unusual variety of responses. The large library was aware of system development quite early and was always on the fringe of active involvement in the organization of the system. Serious reservations prevented it from taking a strong leadership role, but at all points during the establishment it was aware of what the system proposed to do. The medium-sized library was aware of systems very early because of the activities of one of its trustees at the state level; he was in a position of leadership both in his own library and in the area where a system was ultimately formed. The small library is in a system which was among the last to be formed. While it was not aware of system development particularly early, it responded enthusiastically to a suggestion that a system be formed in the area in which it was included. It took an active part in the organization of the system and was one of its charter members. The fact that the system director was on hand from the beginning and made visits to board meetings increased the awareness of the possibilities which the system offered.

Since library systems are still in the process of devising new services or expanding old ones, there is still the problem of keeping libraries informed about what the systems can offer them. This has been greatly simplified by the representation of the libraries on the system board and by the regular channels of communication which the systems have established with their member libraries. Any radically different program which the systems might propose, however, still requires that it be adequately explained to the participating libraries since each new proposal must be evaluated and decided on by each of the member libraries.

The libraries which are still not members of systems present a much more difficult problem. Systems must maintain contact with them without seeming to apply pressure. This is particularly important since library boards do change in nature, rather quickly in some instances, and the response to systems may become more favorable as new trustees are added. Most systems attempt to keep the non-members informed about major system activities.

The Evaluation of Library Systems: Advantages and Disadvantages as Perceived by Trustees and Librarians

The awareness stage of library systems turned quickly into the phase of evaluation in which each library had to consider the merits of system membership. A very quick evaluation was made in the cases of the late and non-joiners which resulted in negative decisions. For the others the evaluation of the system was much more extended and took into account a number of concrete aspects of systems.

Since librarians and trustees are charged first with the provision of library service to their own communities, any plan for library service based on cooperation or participation in a larger unit of service must be evaluated in terms of the effect it will have on local library service. A plan which demands more of a library than it can possibly receive in return is difficult, if not impossible, to reconcile with the library's responsibility to its local community.

This section deals with the system plan itself to see if there were particular features of the plan which caused resistance among librarians and trustees. It is entirely possible that certain features of a system plan would work to the disadvantage of a particular library. The question asked here is what disadvantages were perceived and to what extent did they create resistance to participation in library systems.

Initial evaluation of the library systems was difficult for some trustees and librarians because the details of operation were not worked out. Much had to be accepted on faith and in the hope that suitable arrangements would emerge. In this discussion it will be helpful to consider the libraries first by size and then by time of joining.

Small libraries.--There were two key elements in the consideration which the small libraries gave to system membership. The first was that nothing should be allowed to interfere with the board's control over local library policy; the second was the system's potential as a source of supplementary materials.

What local control, local identity, or autonomy means in these libraries is difficult to describe. They were, for the most part, satisfied with things the way they were and were not anxious to make great changes in the way they operated. With control being exercised in part from the outside, there is always the chance that changes would be required which would affect the amount of work to be done, the amount of money to be spent and, in the long run, the standards of service for the library. There was also the chance of a loss of the privacy with which these libraries operate. None of these objections were voiced openly, but they were hinted at when trustees and librarians recalled their initial reactions to library systems.

When considering system membership the trustees and librarians were reacting to something which was relatively large, which involved state and federal funds, and which meant considerable contact with an outside agency. Some of the original reactions and criticisms were very broad. One librarian called it one more step in the direction of "systematizing" everything we do. A trustee called it a "political racket engineered by the state." In the early-joiner there was quite a receptive response followed by a short period in which they learned more about the services the system could offer them.

The main task of the trustees, librarians, and system personnel lay in convincing the trustees and librarians of these small libraries that there would be no interference from the system in local affairs. This was not an easy job since the objections raised by the librarian in the middle-joiner and by a trustee in the late-joiner were sufficient to keep the boards from acting. When these people were no longer in their positions, the task was very much simpler.

System programs still had to be explained in detail in order to show that local libraries would not have to increase their expenditures or make sweeping changes in their operations as a result of system membership. Once this was accomplished the advantages of system membership were easily explained.

In the course of early discussion of the plan for system development it was mentioned that the State Library would either curtail or cease its policy of lending materials directly to local public libraries. For the small libraries this posed a serious threat since they had long depended on the State Library as a supplementary source of materials. The removal of this back-up source would mean a serious loss of resources. Since the systems offer a pool collection of books from which the member libraries could draw, selling the system was accomplished largely on this basis.

As systems are now operating it is difficult to see any serious disadvantage to the small libraries studied here. Changes have not been great, and while there has been some increase in the amount of work, the load is not overwhelming. None of the system services has resulted in serious changes in the procedures in these libraries. Reciprocal borrowing has either been proposed or is in effect for these small libraries, and only the librarian in the later-joiner voiced any objection. In the others either experience has been too limited or the impact so negligible that no serious complaints have been made.

Medium-sized libraries.--The medium-sized libraries, from early-joiner to non-joiner, show some very distinct differences in the way they initially perceived and reacted to library systems. The middle-joiner and the non-joiner looked at systems in much the same way as the small libraries. Their first consideration was made almost exclusively in terms of what direct benefits could be gained for their libraries. Little concern was expressed about the over all improvement of library service.

In the non-member there was strong opposition from three members who shared a general fear of the use of state funds. For them the use of state funds carried with it the implication of state control. Satisfaction was expressed with the status quo, and there was little desire to move into a large organization where close personal contacts might be lost. This general reaction was reinforced by a feeling that the system had little to offer a library which has an "adequate collection including phonograph records, prints, and special programs for children." They also expressed a desire to do their own ordering and processing since the "system processing is slow and involves a number of restrictions." This information apparently came from another library which is a system member. Films were mentioned as a service which would be nice to have, but this in itself was not enough to make membership worthwhile. As long as the State Library continues to serve as a back-up source, they feel that the present arrangement is satisfactory, and that system services are much more suitable for smaller and less adequate libraries.

The librarians and trustees of the middle-joiner met the idea of system membership with feelings ranging from moderate interest to outright opposition. The fear of control from the outside was again present, but there were more specific problems envisioned also; among them were that the system would require changes in the charging procedures and that the use of system services would mean more work for the staff. Membership also meant that someone from the board would have to attend system meetings and finding someone who was willing to do this was not easy.

The disadvantages of membership had to be weighed against some serious problems the library faced which the system was in a position to help with. The State Library's threatened withdrawal of direct service would have serious implications for this library too, even though its collections were larger and more adequate than those in the smaller libraries. One trustee expressed it as having no other choice.

Since becoming a member there has been general satisfaction with the system. Reference service and films are available from the system if needed, and the system has helped to stimulate the building of the library's own record collection. Collections of books from the system have improved the scope of the collection and the system has aided in the change-over to a new charging system. Ideas for displays and the exchange of ideas with other librarians at system workshops were cited as other benefits of membership.

The early-joiner in this group was very much involved in systems from the start and responded favorably to the idea. Few objections were raised, and once again the possibility of the State Library's withdrawal from direct service was a motivating force. Specific advantages envisioned and since realized in part, were rotating collections of books and access to other supplementary materials either directly from the system or through interlibrary loan. The system has been helpful in providing supplementary materials for high school students and in helping with promotional materials for summer reading programs. They too mentioned the value of the system in keeping the libraries "closer together."

Large libraries.--The general approach of the large libraries has been quite different from what has been seen in the small and medium-sized libraries. This is due in part to their general nature; they all have professional staffs, and as libraries in Illinois go, they are adequate for their communities or engaged in active planning for improvement. They are offering a fairly wide range of services and while they are not completely self-sufficient, they come much closer to professional standards of library service.

The large libraries, by virtue primarily of their size and their professional staffs, are in a somewhat different position from the small and medium-sized libraries. They are expected to assume a leadership role or at least to be willing to cooperate in larger units of service. At the same time it takes a much different level of system service to provide them with something they do not presently have.

Within this general framework the reactions of the large libraries have been quite different. The non-member views the system as something which is unnecessary and is content to operate much as it always has. If the system or an individual library would like some service that it is in a position to offer, it would be glad to provide it on contract or on some kind of "business-like" arrangement. The policies of the library are highly structured, and there is little interest in becoming involved with other libraries. This general attitude toward the system is accompanied by some very general but extreme comments about the system; "The system has nothing to offer us," and "the system plan is illegal." This latter comment is based on the contention that tax funds collected within a city are for library services to people in the city and are not to be used for giving service to people who live outside the city. How the system would require the use of funds in this way was not elaborated. The library has been involved in a building program during the period of system development, and it was admitted that some of the board members were not much aware of what the systems were doing.

The reactions of the middle-joiner and the early-joiner are very much in keeping with their situations. First, both feel an obligation to help in the organization of the system at least to the extent of becoming members. Beyond this their reactions to systems and their participation have reflected the nature of the problems they face. The middle-joiner operates in a fairly stable situation where library problems have been under control for some time. In the past it has given consideration to the organization of a larger unit of service in its area which would encompass areas lying outside its city boundaries. The system plan fell naturally into this kind of thinking, and the concept was accepted and supported very early in its development. This library has been able to play an important role in planning system services and continues to work on the problem of service to unserved or poorly served areas. So far as it is concerned, the primary benefits of the system are the opportunity it provides for the exchange of ideas with other librarians and for planning for library service on a large scale. Concrete services from the system may be forthcoming which will be of value for this library, but there is no sense of immediacy about having them.

The early-joiner faces a much more difficult situation which colors its reaction to systems. First, there is a feeling among some of the trustees that the library has a responsibility in helping to see that the system succeeds. Along with this, however, there is an immediate need for services from the system. The library is in a rapidly growing community and is engaged in a very rapid expansion of resources and services. The system, if it were to offer services which would supplement those the library now offers, could be of great assistance. On the other hand, programs such as reciprocal borrowing, which the librarian and trustees feel would drain the library of needed resources, are vigorously opposed.

Although this library did join a system quite early, it must be considered as still in a stage of serious evaluation of the benefits of system membership. At the moment it feels that it is getting little from the system, but holds out the possibility that the system will eventually provide some of the services it needs.

Resistance to Systems

From the findings presented in this and in the previous chapter it is evident that initial resistance to library systems was common. It was visible in varying degrees in seven of the nine libraries studied, ranging from mild questioning in some to very strong opposition in others.

In four of the cases the initial resistance must be described as strong. In two cases the resistance has continued, and the libraries are still not members of systems. In the other two cases the initial resistance has been overcome and the libraries persuaded to join systems, one after a few months, the other after three years from the organization of the systems.

In the two instances where the libraries are still not system members, resistance of an extreme type exists. The negative feelings toward systems are shared by most members of the boards of trustees, and while the librarians may not be as negatively disposed, they are not willing to work actively for system membership and state that they see few advantages in belonging to a system. The decision was arrived at rather easily in both of these cases and came after attendance at one or two area meetings. Since the time when systems began operation, there has been no effort on the part of these libraries to stay abreast of developments, nor is there any indication that the original decision has been reconsidered. No move has come either from the trustees or the libraries to re-open discussion, and efforts by system personnel to get them to join have been of no avail.

Strong resistance was shown by two other libraries which eventually joined systems, but there are a number of differences from the non-members in the nature of the resistance, and there are some very special circumstances involved. One of the libraries involved here is a large library which is classified as an early joiner; the other is a small library in the category of late or non-joiners.

The first difference comes in the extent of the opposition. In the large library the board was evenly split on the question of system membership, and the advantages and disadvantages were carefully weighed before the question came to a vote. The decision in favor of system membership was passed by a one vote margin. In the small library a much different situation prevailed. There was less awareness of the system programs, and the opposition came primarily from one trustee. His vigorous opposition combined with the lack of any positive argument was enough to delay action on the question. This points out the influence which a single person may wield and demonstrates the manner in which small libraries frequently operate, namely the requirement of consensus before any important action is taken.

The major question to be considered here is why this degree of resistance should exist in these libraries. The general feeling expressed by the two non-members is that the systems have little to offer them. This is an interesting response because it does not question the value of the system for someone else, and in order to argue against it some kind of evaluation must be made of the quality of the library to show that system services are needed. There are few people who are willing or in a position to make this kind of judgment since the result is more likely to be further alienation than a positive response.

This argument against system membership has other interesting implications. It is not a response which can be given by a library which feels itself to be seriously inadequate. Both of these libraries have programs and buildings which are average to above average for communities of their size. The range of services offered is quite broad, and there are recent improvements in the physical plants which can be cited as partial proof of how well they have done on their own.

These two libraries show why a distinction must be made between professional and local orientation. Both are aware of professional library standards and make an effort to apply them to their libraries. In addition both of the librarians are active in professional programs and are above average in professional training and experience. Despite this professional orientation, the fact remains that in terms of service the orientation of the libraries is strictly local. Both take a restrictive view of how library funds are to be used and who is receiving the services. Their financial approaches are very conservative in terms of the amount of money to be expended, and both are highly conscious of the local taxpayer. The clientele is well defined as is the service area. Outside funds are not sought, and there is a reluctance to accept direct help of any kind from outside sources. They are content with service as it is being given and feel that whatever is required can be provided by local efforts.

When asked if they would be willing to join a system if it did offer services that were needed, or what services the system could offer which would persuade them to join, the response was that they could not conceive of any services which the systems might offer which would be of sufficient value to induce them to join.

The main concern in these libraries is providing service to their communities, in fact it is virtually their exclusive concern. They are not interested in cooperative arrangements beyond interlibrary loans, and they have not given any thought to service outside their communities except for non-resident use. What specific fault they do find in systems is based on the possibility that systems might impose regulations and controls and might force them to extend service to people they do not feel obligated to serve.

A similar concern about control from the outside was expressed by the two libraries which showed strong initial resistance but did decide to join systems. In the small library, located in a sparsely settled rural area with few other libraries in its vicinity, the reaction to control from the outside was a very general response to this threat.

There was no expression given to how outside control would be imposed or how it would affect them, but there was a vague fear that specific changes in the library's operation would be required.

In the large library there were much more specific reasons for fearing outside control and a greater awareness of the form and effects this control might have. The library is in a community in a densely populated, rapidly growing suburban area. The community has given generous support to the library in recognition of the need for rapid improvement if the library is to be adequate for local needs. There are other communities nearby which have supported library service less well which have physical access to this library. Outside control, if it means the eventual requirement of reciprocal borrowing, is a very specific threat since the librarian and the trustees feel that they are not in a position to assume the additional load which they fear would come as a result of reciprocal borrowing. The service orientation is very local in this case also, but there are some understandable reasons for it. Firm assurances from the system that there would be no interference in local affairs were instrumental in the library's decision to become a member of the system.

These four libraries represent a wide range of intensity in the resistance to library systems, and illustrate some of the problems which may arise as a result of specific local problems. They also show the importance which individual trustees and librarians can have in the decision making process. In the libraries which are still not members of systems, it seems likely that significant changes in attitude are required before they are likely to join systems. As in the small late-joiner this may come only with changes in the composition of the board of trustees. If new trustees can be informed about systems and convinced of the value of membership, there is a chance for a favorable decision at some time in the future.

Two of the middle joiners are interesting because they illustrate more clearly the complete process which many libraries went through before they came to a decision to join library systems. One of the libraries is small, the other medium-sized. There are differences in their operations due to their size, but there are also some similarities in the way they reacted to systems and in the way certain reservations were overcome. There was not the solid opposition which characterized the non-members; the trustees were divided on the question so discussion of the possibility of membership was not cut off by an early negative vote. The prospect of system membership remained open and was reconsidered periodically.

Part of the delay on the decision was due, not to opposition, but to the lack of information the libraries had about systems. They knew that systems were being formed since they had attended meetings on the subject, but they both experienced difficulty in finding trustees who would take the responsibility for attending meetings and reporting on developments. The librarians did little to provide the background information, in fact they exerted little or no positive influence on the decision. In the small library the librarian was opposed to membership, and in the medium-sized library the librarian left the matter to the trustees to settle. The favorable decisions which were eventually reached were the result of a change of personnel in the small library and direct action by the system directors in both cases. The librarian of the small library stepped down to part-time work which removed the main source of opposition. This change made it possible for the system director to approach the trustees to explain the workings of the system in detail. The benefits and reassurances offered in the director's presentation were enough to persuade the board, which had never completely closed its mind on the subject.

In the medium-sized library much of the problem was simply a matter of obtaining enough information to offset the objections which had been raised. One of the trustees who had urged that the library join a system helped to fill this need with aid from the system director. Since not all of the trustees were opposed to membership, this was an important step toward a favorable decision. The system director was able to offer immediate direct benefits to the library which were substantial enough to convince a majority of the trustees of the value of system membership.

The reactions of the two middle-joiners suggest some of the difficulties encountered by those who worked on system development even when they were not faced by outright resistance. The difficulty in imparting information, the inability to find people at the local level who were interested in learning about systems, and the general problem of getting trustees and librarians to consider new programs were more serious obstacles in some cases than countering specific arguments against system membership. These are conservative libraries which change very little, and which give a minimum of attention to library developments around them.

Although much of the inaction in these libraries can be attributed to a lack of knowledge, a lack of leadership and a general inertia, there were some specific arguments advanced against systems. In these cases as in others, it is difficult to tell if the objections represented firmly held beliefs, or if they were presented to allow more time for the consideration of the possible implications of system membership. The most common reservation was the familiar one of restrictions and controls from the outside. The system was felt to be quite complicated, and it was feared that membership would mean more work for the staff, and eventually the expenditure of more money.

As system members of some duration now, the libraries express satisfaction with system services and are satisfied that they will be able to operate without pressure from the system.

In the three remaining libraries resistance was virtually absent in two and very weak in the third. In all of the cases there was a very early commitment on the part of either the librarian or one of the trustees to the idea of systems and the beneficial effects they could have. Not only were they people who believed in systems, but they were able, partly because of their knowledge of systems, to convince others. Very minor objections, usually concerned with whether local control would be diminished, were easily overcome. For each of the libraries tangible benefits could be seen, either in the form of specific services or in the opportunity to participate in planning for library service on a much larger scale. Not only were these libraries receptive to systems, they were active in their planning and promotion.

There are several characteristics which distinguish the libraries that were receptive to systems. All were very much concerned with improving library service either locally or in areas around them. The small library saw the system as an excellent replacement for the State Library, especially for improving service to students and young children. In the other two libraries opportunities were seen for the improvement of local services, but in addition they felt the system offered a chance to improve or extend service to areas with limited access to library service.

None of these three libraries is easily distinguishable by the quality or quantity of the resources they have or by their programs of service. They do combine good professional contacts with leadership that is active and responsive to new ideas. They appear much more receptive to change in general and show less concern about maintaining strict control over their library programs.

Resistance to systems does not necessarily stop when a library decides to join a system. Joining may be an indication of agreement with the general aims of the system, but it is not a guarantee that libraries will be in agreement with system policies developed after they have joined, or that they will fully participate in the system services offered. Resistance may appear as open opposition to a specific proposal, or it may come in the form of disinterest in using certain system services. Distinctions are not always easy to make, since what is resistance in one case may be the genuine lack of need for a service in another.

Library systems have developed very rapidly in Illinois primarily because they have made a firm public commitment to the idea that there would be no interference in local affairs. In keeping with this statement there are very few restrictions placed on libraries when they join systems, and participation in system programs is strictly voluntary. The systems are not basically cooperative in that individual libraries do not directly contribute funds for the system's operation. Libraries are not required to use services nor do they experience any direct loss of revenue if they choose not to use a service which is available. These features have been very important in getting libraries to join systems, since the amount of change that will be required is determined by the local libraries. While this was helpful in overcoming initial resistance, it does not necessarily remove the resistance to some of the kinds of change required when certain system services are used. Indications of this residual resistance begin to appear when the types of system services are compared by the amount of use they receive. The number of libraries considered in this study and the data available are not sufficient to permit any firm conclusions, but they do suggest some trends and some areas for further investigation.

In the small and medium libraries which have been in systems long enough to learn about the services available, there has been a good response to the services which supplement directly the resources and services at the local level. A central pool collection of books from which member libraries may draw freely, rotating collections of books which may be kept for extended periods, and non-book materials such as films, records, and art prints have been popular and heavily used.

For the small libraries and for some medium-sized libraries, these services are the essential features of library systems. They are services which the libraries must have in order to maintain acceptable levels of local service. In the past these services were supplied by the State Library so in essence all that has changed is the source of supply.

This kind of service requires no cooperation among the member libraries of a system. The system is a central source of supply which deals directly with individual libraries. Local libraries may use the service without payment and without directly incurring any obligations to the system or to any other library. Very little change is required, and all that libraries must do is return the books and provide shelf space while they are on loan. In some instances the system books are maintained as an additional new book shelf or browsing area with little effort being made to integrate either catalog records or the shelving of materials. This type of service is important to these libraries, and since it involves little that is new, little resistance is encountered.

A second type of service commonly offered by systems is designed to meet a different set of needs and involves a slightly different relationship between the member libraries and the system. The most common examples of this kind of service are interlibrary loans and centralized reference service, both of which are designed to provide information or materials in response to specific requests. The use of this kind of service depends on the initiative of the local library staff, since the system is limited to encouraging the use of the services and responding to direct requests when they are received.

Effective use of this kind of service requires that librarians be able to recognize when system resources and staff would be of help and that they be willing to make the effort go beyond their local resources. Interlibrary loans are part of a well established procedure and are quite widely used. Reference service service of this type is new, however, and there is reluctance in some cases to use the service. Local libraries must be willing to admit occasionally to limitations in reference resources and skills if this service is to be used to its fullest. There are some indications that the middle-joiners which showed initial resistance to systems resist using this service, but more detailed study is required before firm conclusions can be drawn.

A third level of service embodies one of the most important concepts behind library systems, namely that libraries working together can provide better service. The first two types of service involved a direct relationship between the system and member libraries; no other libraries were involved, and there were only minimal requirements that the member libraries had to fulfill. The third type of service does require something from the member library, either in the form of cooperation with other member libraries or in compliance with a system policy. The best example of this kind of service is reciprocal borrowing which requires the participation of all member libraries for maximum effectiveness. In addition to requiring that libraries extend service to the patrons of other member libraries, it may necessitate changes in charging procedures and non-resident fees in order to achieve uniformity throughout the system.

Other examples of this level of service are centralized processing and consultant services. Centralized processing does not require cooperation with other libraries, but it does mean that established forms of cataloging and classification must be accepted and reconciled with local practices. In using consultant services, member libraries are not required to follow the advice given, but it is difficult to ask for help and then refuse to follow the recommendations which are made.

It is this type of service, requiring the greatest amount of direct response from the member libraries, that is most likely to cause change; this type of service also encounters the most resistance. The reservations which some libraries have about reciprocal borrowing have already been discussed. Centralized processing has not been easy to sell to some of the small and medium-sized libraries which were studied here. The reasons for this are difficult to ascertain since using a centralized service would release considerable staff time for other work. It is possible that where the use of centralized processing involves a charge to the local library it is difficult to justify the expenditure if the staff has been doing the work. Centralized processing would require changes in the duties of some of the staff, which in small libraries, might mean major re-orientation in the use of staff time. Reconciling the new cataloging and classification to local practices might be difficult and require revision of work that has been done. Finally, there seems to be a feeling among librarians in small libraries that cataloging and classification are two of the few technical operations they perform, and that they help to establish the librarian as something of a specialist. Centralized processing would remove this, and hence, perhaps for this and other reasons there is some reluctance to use the service.

Consultant service can be one of the most valuable services offered by systems. Even though some systems do not have people who are specifically designated consultants, there are always staff members willing to advise on specific problems or general policies. Large libraries rarely need the service, so its use is limited primarily to the small and medium-sized libraries. Much of the consulting is done informally, in casual conversations or as problems arise, but it almost always depends on a request from the member library. Consultant service is not heavily used by the libraries studied, and this is particularly true of the libraries which showed the strongest initial resistance. The use of such services implies inadequacy to some people, and there is also the possibility that changes will be suggested which the library is not willing to make.

While this evidence does not define precisely the nature of the resistance which remains to full participation in library system programs, it does show that resistance to change and to system programs which involve change, still exists. It can also be tentatively suggested that residual resistance is strongest in those libraries which showed the most initial resistance. Whether the lines of communication established between systems and member libraries and the degree of participation already achieved will lead to full participation in these libraries is a question for more intensive study.

Summary

This chapter has dealt with the way in which librarians and trustees view library systems in an attempt to determine some of the causes of resistance to library systems. It has included sections on the ways in which information about systems was acquired, the advantages and disadvantages libraries saw in library systems, and the nature of the resistance that was encountered.

A general awareness of library system development was easily accomplished through the distribution of printed materials and by area meetings of librarians and trustees. The time at which librarians and trustees learned about systems and the way in which they found out about them bears little relationship to the eventual decisions which boards of trustees made on the question of whether or not to join systems. Where early knowledge of systems was combined with strong leadership by either trustees or librarians, it did have the effect of making the decision somewhat easier and earlier.

The relative advantages and disadvantages of system membership were viewed quite differently by libraries in the various size and time groups. The small libraries saw the system primarily as a replacement for the State Library in the provision of supplementary materials. The two medium-sized system members were also somewhat concerned about maintaining a back-up source, but this was slightly less important at least for general materials. The medium-sized libraries saw the system as a source of more specialized materials, and in the case of one of them as a means for extending service to unserved areas. A similar set of views characterized the large libraries which are system members; one saw it as a source of badly needed services, the other as a vehicle for planning library service on a large scale.

Two libraries, one large and one medium-sized, saw no advantages in system membership and they remain outside systems. Many of the concerns which other libraries had about systems stemmed from vague fears about the kind of control systems would exercise over individual libraries and what requirements would be made of them. Increased work, increased costs, and a loss of control over local operations were commonly expressed fears. Specific criticisms of system programs were lacking for the most part, both among members and non-members. One library was concerned that the system was not offering the kind of services it needed, but in general little criticism was aimed at the way systems were being administered or at the service programs.

Initial resistance to system membership was due more to unanswered questions about the details of system operation than to definite aspects of the plan. Most of these concerns were satisfied as the nature of the system was explained in more detail. The length of time taken before the decision was made to join a system was related to the strength of the resistance in seven of the nine cases.

Resistance to systems continues in some of the libraries which are now system members. While sufficient evidence was not available to determine the extent of the resistance or its causes, it was suggested that as system services require more cooperation with other libraries resistance is more likely to exist. The same was suggested for services which required increased effort or change at the local level or which threatened to impose system rules in place of local regulations. Again, while it cannot be stated definitely on the basis of the findings here, there are indications that the residual resistance is greatest in those libraries which showed the most initial resistance. These and other related questions require further study.

APPENDIX A

CLASSIFICATION OF TAX SUPPORTED PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN ILLINOIS BY SIZE, BY TIME OF SYSTEM MEMBERSHIP, AND BY SERVICE AND SUPPORT VARIABLES

POPULATION SERVED*

	0-9,999	10-19,999	20,000+	
Early Joiners	195 (56.5)**	49 (66.2)	42 (73.7)	286
Middle Joiners	115 (33.3)	12 (16.2)	8 (14.0)	135
Late or Non-joiners	35 (10.1)	13 (17.6)	7 (12.3)	55
Totals	345	74	57	476

*1960 Census figures

**Percentage in size category

ASSESSED VALUATION

	$0-24,999*	$25-49,999	$50,000	
Early Joiners	175 (55.7)	39 (60.9)	72 (73.5)	286
Middle Joiners	107 (34.1)	16 (25.0)	12 (12.2)	135
Late or Non-joiners	32 (10.2)	9 (14.1)	14 (14.3)	55
Totals	314	64	98	476

*In millions of dollars (1966)

LIBRARY TAX RATE

	0-.049%	.05-.09%	.10%+	
Early Joiners	45 (45.9)	174 (62.1)	67 (68.4)	286
Middle Joiners	39 (39.8)	79 (28.2)	17 (17.3)	135
Late or Non-joiners	14 (14.3)	27 (9.6)	14 (14.3)	55
Totals	98	280	98	476

HOURS OPEN PER WEEK

	0-20	21-40	40+	
Early Joiners	77 (52.7)	99 (55.3)	110 (72.8)	286
Middle Joiners	59 (40.4)	56 (31.3)	20 (13.2)	135
Late or Non-joiners	10 (6.8)	24 (13.4)	21 (13.9)	55
Totals	146	179	151	476

NUMBER OF BOOKS IN LIBRARY

	0-15,000	16-40,000	40,000+	
Early Joiners	173 (57.1)	50 (57.5)	63 (74.7)	286
Middle Joiners	104 (34.3)	15 (17.2)	16 (18.6)	135
Late or Non-joiners	26 (8.6)	22 (25.3)	7 (8.0)	55
Totals	303	87	86	476

VOLUMES ADDED

	0-1,499	1,500-3,999	4,000+	
Early Joiners	154 (52.6)	83 (69.7)	49 (76.6)	286
Middle Joiners	104 (35.5)	22 (18.5)	9 (14.1)	135
Late or Non-joiners	35 (11.9)	14 (11.8)	6 (9.4)	55
Totals	293	119	64	476

TOTAL CIRCULATION

	0-49,000	50-99,999	100,000+	
Early Joiners	184 (55.6)	31 (60.8)	71 (76.3)	286
Middle Joiners	113 (33.9)	12 (23.5)	10 (10.8)	135
Late or Non-joiners	36 (10.8)	7 (13.7)	12 (12.9)	55
Totals	333	50	93	476

TOTAL INCOME

	$0-24,999	$25,000-40,000	$40,000+	
Early Joiners	160 (52.3)	68 (73.9)	58 (74.4)	286
Middle Joiners	110 (35.9)	14 (15.2)	11 (14.1)	135
Late or Non-joiners	36 (11.8)	10 (10.9)	9 (11.5)	55
Totals	306	92	78	476

EXPENDITURES FOR SALARIES

	$0-14,999	$15,000-29,999	$30,000+	
Early Joiners	204 (55.9)	27 (69.2)	55 (76.4)	286
Middle Joiners	120 (32.9)	6 (15.4)	9 (12.5)	135
Late or Non-joiners	41 (11.2)	6 (15.4)	8 (11.1)	55
Totals	365	39	72	476

EXPENDITURES FOR MATERIALS

	$0-4,999	$5,000-14,999	$15,000+	
Early Joiners	185 (55.2)	50 (66.7)	51 (77.3)	286
Middle Joiners	111 (33.1)	16 (21.3)	8 (12.1)	135
Late or Non-joiners	39 (11.6)	9 (12.0)	7 (10.6)	55
Totals	335	75	66	476

TOTAL EXPENDITURES

	$0-24,999	$25,000-69,999	$70,000+	
Early Joiners	177 (54.0)	51 (67.1)	58 (80.6)	286
Middle Joiners	112 (34.1)	15 (19.7)	8 (11.1)	135
Late or Non-joiners	39 (11.9)	10 (13.2)	6 (8.3)	55
Totals	328	76	72	476

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULES USED WITH LIBRARIANS AND TRUSTEES OF MEMBER AND NON-MEMBER LIBRARIES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR USE WITH LIBRARIANS INCLUDING MODIFICATIONS FOR LIBRARIANS OF NON-MEMBER LIBRARIES

A. Experience, Education, Professional Activities, Relationship with Board

1. How long have you worked in this library?
2. How long have you lived in this community?
3. Have you worked in other libraries?
4. How many years have you worked in libraries altogether?
5. Have you had other work experience besides in libraries?
6. Have you had any specific training for library work?
7. What kind of training do you feel is necessary for the work you do?
    a. Do you ever have occasion to talk to young people about the possibility of librarianship as a career?
8. Do you expect to remain in this position?
9. If you were to leave, what would be the most likely reason for your leaving?
10. If you were to move to another community would you look for work in a library there?
11. Are you a member of any professional library association?
12. Does the library pay your membership dues in these organizations?
13. Have you attended the annual meetings of these associations in the last two years?

14. Does your board pay your expenses to these meetings?

15. Have you attended any library workshops in the last year? What were the subjects?

16. If you were going to institute a new service such as a rental collection, where would you go for information or advice?

17. If you were considering expanding or remodeling your building, where would you go for help?

18. If one of your patrons were to complain about a book the library has, where would you go for advice or information on how to deal with the problem?

19. What kinds of library science literature do you buy for your library?

20. What library journals do you read regularly?

21. If a patron asks for a book you don't have or asks a question you can't answer, what do you do?
    a. How often do you call on other libraries?

22. Do you have any cooperative arrangements with other libraries?

23. Do you extend any services to people who live outside your community?

24. At the meetings of the board do you make a regular report?

25. How are the books selected for your library? Does the board approve the selections?
    a. Has the board ever rejected any of your selections?

26. How often is the board supposed to meet?

27. Are you usually able to get a quorum for these meetings?

28. What kinds of things does the board deal with at the meetings?

29. Do you ever consult with board members between meetings?

B. Views of Library Service and Planning for Service

1. What do you feel to be the greatest improvements you have made in your library in the last two years?

2. What do you feel are the best things about your library?

3. What do you feel are things that most need improving?

   Building
   - Location
   - Seating space
   - Work space
   - Parking

   Staff and Services
   - Books
   - Staff
   - Salaries
   - Hours open
   - Other

4. Do the people who use your library ever come to you with suggestions or complaints?

   a. What was the most recent suggestion?

   b. Are you usually able to do something about the suggestion?

5. Is your library planning any major changes in the physical facilities of the library?

   a. Have any steps been taken?

   b. How will the money be raised?

6. Have you added any new services in the past two years?

   a. What are they?

7. Are you planning any new services?

   a. What are they?

   b. Has money been provided for them in the budget?

8. Who has the final say on the amount of money appropriated for the library each year?

9. In the last three years, have you been able to get the amount of money you have requested.

10. Who do you feel should have the final say?

11. In the past two years have you made any efforts to get the tax rate raised?

12. Are you considering any such steps?

13. Have you considered any other methods of increasing the amount of money the library receives?

C. Library Systems (for use with system members)

1. How did you first become aware of library systems?

2. Did you attend organizational meetings of the system?

3. When the idea of library systems was first suggested, what was your reaction?

4. Did the trustees have any objections to system membership? If so, what were they?

5. How were initial objections to system membership overcome?

6. What changes has the system made in your library's operation?

7. What system services are most valuable for your library?

8. Who do you feel benefits most from library systems?

9. Do you feel that you will remain a member of a library system?

C. Library Systems (for use with non-members)

1. How did you first become aware of library systems?

2. Did you attend organizational meetings of the systems?

3. When the idea of systems was first suggested, what was your reaction?

4. Did the trustees have any objections to system membership? If so, what were they?

5. Under what conditions do you feel your library would be willing to join a system?

6. Are there services the system offers now or might offer which would be of value for your library?

7. Who do you feel benefits most from system membership?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR USE WITH TRUSTEES INCLUDING MODIFICATIONS FOR TRUSTEES OF NON-MEMBER LIBRARIES

A. Time on Board, Professional Activities and Relationship with the Librarian

1. How long have you served on the board?

2. How long have you lived in this community?

3. How did you first become interested in serving on the library board?

4. What kind of training do you feel is necessary for the librarian for your library?

5. Is there any limit on the number of terms a board member may serve? Do you feel there should be such a limit?

6. Are you a member of any professional library or trustee organizations?

7. Are these personal memberships or does the library pay for them?

8. Have you attended any workshops or conferences in the last two years?

9. Have you attended the annual meetings of these organizations in the last two years?

10. Does the library pay expenses incurred in attendance at such meetings?

11. If you were considering remodeling or expanding your building, where would you go for help?

13. If one of your patrons were to complain about a book the library has, where would you go for information on how to deal with the problem?

14. Does your library have cooperative arrangements with other libraries? Did any of them exist before systems were developed?

15. To what extent do you extend service to people who live outside your community?

16. How often does the library board meet?

17. Do you ever have trouble getting a quorum for meetings?

18. Does the librarian make a report to the board at each of the meetings?

19. How are the books selected for the library?

20. What kinds of items does the board usually deal with at its meetings?

21. Does the board have committees which meet regularly?

22. Do you have occasion to consult with the librarian between regular meetings of the board?

B. Views on Library Service and Planning for Service

1. What to you feel have been the greatest improvements you have made in your library in the last two years?

2. What do you feel are the best things about your library?

3. What do you feel are things which most need improving?

Building
- Location
- Seating space
- Work space
- Parking
- Other

Staff and Services
- Size of staff
- Training for staff
- Number of books
- Salaries
- Hours open
- Special services
- Other

4. Do the people who use your library ever come to you with suggestions or complaints?

   a. What was the most recent suggestion?

   b. Are you usually able to do something about the suggestion?

5. Is your library planning any major changes in the physical facilities of the library?
   a. Have any steps been taken?
   b. How will the money be raised?

6. Have you added any new services in the past two years?
   a. What are they?

7. Are you planning any new services?
   a. What are they?
   b. Has money been provided for them in the budget?

8. Who has the final say on the amount of money appropriated for the library each year?

9. In the last three years, have you been able to get the amount of money you have requested?

10. Who do you feel should have the final say?

11. In the past two years have you made any efforts to get the tax rate raised?

12. Are you considering any such steps?

13. Have you considered any other methods of increasing the amount of money the library receives?

C. Library Systems (for use with system members)

1. How did you first become aware of library systems?

2. Did you attend organizational meetings of the system?

3. When the idea of library systems was first suggested, what was your reaction?

4. Did the trustees have any objections to system membership? If so, what were they?

5. How were initial objections to system membership overcome?

6. What changes has the system made in your library's operation?

7. What system services are most valuable for your library?

8. Who do you feel benefits most from library systems?

9. Do you feel that you will remain a member of a library system?

C. Library Systems (for use with non-members)

1. How did you first become aware of library systems?

2. Did you attend organizational meetings of the systems?

3. When the idea of systems was first suggested, what was your reaction?

4. Did the trustees have any objections to system membership? If so, what were they?

5. Under what conditions do you feel your library would be willing to join a system?

6. Are there services the system offers now or might offer which would be of value for your library?

7. Who do you feel benefits most from system membership?